The Dissertation Committee for Duygu Uslu Ok certifies that this is the approved version of the following dissertation:

The Future in the Lives of Turkish International Sojourners Studying in America: The Role of Future Time Perspectives and Possible Selves in Explaining Motivation to Learn English

Committee:

_____
Diane Schallert, Supervisor

_____
Elaine K. Horwitz

_____
Marilla Svinicki

_____
Orlando Kelm

_____
Gary Borich

_____
Erika Patall

The Future in the Lives of Turkish International Sojourners Studying in America: The Role of Future Time Perspectives and Possible Selves in Explaining Motivation to Learn English

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Duygu Uslu Ok, B.A.; M.A.

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To My Beloved Husband, Ali,

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My Dearest Family, Mahinur, Osman, and Özgür

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The Future in the Lives of Turkish International Sojourners Studying in America: The Role of Future Time Perspectives and Possible Selves in Explaining Motivation to Learn English

Duygu Uslu Ok, Ph.D.

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Supervisor: Diane Schallert

Previous research using future time perspective or possible selves frameworks provided evidence that learners with definite and elaborate goals, and future self-guides are more motivated in school tasks (Reeve, 2009; Yowell, 2000), exert more effort, demonstrate persistence, and show greater performance (De Volder & Lens, 1982; Lens et al., 2002; Simons et al., 2000), and learners with positive possible selves were better able to face failure, demonstrated better performance, had higher levels of self-esteem, showed more persistence on tasks, and depicted greater motivation (Cross & Markus, 1994; Oyserman et al., 2004; Unemori et al., 2004). The purpose of this study was to investigate the role of future orientation constructs, future time perspective and possible selves, on Turkish college level learners' motivation to learn English and their identity construction, and how future projections of themselves as L2 users (the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and feared L2 self) impacted their motivation to learn English and their

identities. A total of 299 Turkish graduate students studying in the United States participated in the study. Also, this study examined the extent to which adding a measure of the feared L2 self construct contributed to explaining motivation to learn English and identity construction. The data were collected via surveys and interviews, and they were analyzed quantitatively, using qualitative data for triangulation. Findings suggested that the L2 motivational self-system (Dornyei, 2005, 2009) contributed to explaining Turkish learners' motivation to learn English and their oriented identities. Also, adding a feared L2 self variable to measures of the L2 motivational self system could help explain learners' identity construction but not their language learning motivation. In addition, future time perspective connectedness and value were not useful in explaining the L2 motivation, but future connectedness was found to be related to the ideal L2 self and feared L2 self, and valuing the future goals was related to the ought-to L2 self. Qualitative data showed that learners presented combination of several identities, including national and oriented. They imagined themselves as professional and successful English users, and their L2 related worries included losing their native language and being seen as "assimilated" or as "showing off" individuals.

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Chapter I

Introduction

Motivation has been studied widely in second and foreign language contexts. Second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have explored why some learners are more motivated to learn a second/ foreign language (L2), and the factors that influence their motivation to learn an L2. Ushioda (2009), particularly, has argued that motivation is a prerequisite for successful acquisition of a second language. Yet, it remains critical to explore how, why, and under what conditions language learners are motivated. The goal of this study was to shed light on how language learners' future projections of themselves as L2 users and their future language learning goals play a role in their current motivation to learn English.

Significance of the Study

Research to date has explored how future goals and learners' future projections of themselves in different domains (i.e., social, academic, family, health domains) have an impact on their present motivation. The research lends support to the claim that schooling is a future-oriented domain, and learners with definite and elaborate goals and future self-guides are more motivated in school tasks (Reeve, 2005; Yowell, 2000). These future-oriented learners also exert more effort, demonstrate persistence, and show greater performance (De Volder & Lens, 1982; Lens, Simons, & Dewitte, 2002; Simons, Dewitte, & Lens, 2000). However, the foreign language literature has not as yet included attention to future orientation.

Because of the complexity of language learning and the uniqueness of the language classroom, it would seem important to explore how these future-oriented constructs, namely future-time perspective and possible selves, can play a role in the language classroom, and identify what factors shape their construction or are shaped by them. Also, motivation, as a multifaceted, dynamic, and temporal construct, still remains understudied in language classrooms. Since the influential work of Gardner and Lambert (1972), second language motivation researchers have been interested in explaining why some learners learn a second language more easily than others, and the factors that impact language learning motivation. Although there have been various motivational theories that have been suggested to explore L2 motivation, none of the current motivation theories can alone explain how and what role motivation plays in the language classroom. Therefore, this study is designed to contribute to the existing research by providing another piece to the puzzle, how future goals and learners' future projections of themselves as L2 users impact their current motivation.

In the next sections of the chapter, I review the literature most pertinent to laying the groundwork for the study I conducted.

Future Time Perspective

Future time perspective (FTP) is believed to evolve from the process of motivational goal setting influenced by an individual's more or less distal goals (Nuttin & Lens, 1985). FTP is defined as "the degree to which and the way in which the chronological future is integrated into the present life-space of an individual

through motivational goal setting processes" (Husman & Lens, 1999, p. 114). The existing research has investigated the benefits of having an extended FTP, and how FTP is related to learners' motivation, by way of its connection to the instrumental value of tasks, different types of instrumentality, self-determination theory, extrinsic-intrinsic goal striving, and autonomy supportive versus controlling contexts. It has been found that FTP has an impact on learners' perceived instrumentality of tasks, motivation, persistence, cognitive engagement, effective learning strategies, and overall performance (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; De Volder & Lens, 1982; Husman & Lens, 1999; Lens, 1988; Lens, Simons, & Dewitte, 2002; Simons, Dewitte, & Lens, 2000). Research to date has not particularly addressed the foreign/second language learning setting, and the existing research has usually been conducted with populations in Europe (see Bilde, Vansteenkiste, & Lens, 2010; Paetsma & Van der Veen, 2011); therefore, there is a need to carry out a study in different contexts and associated with foreign/second language learning.

Future Possible Selves

The construct of *possible selves* (PSs), introduced by Markus and Nurius (1986), provides a link between cognition and motivation because it represents individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming. The *hoped-for self* or *ideal self* refers to what we would like to become in the future. The *feared* or *dreaded self* is the possible self that we want to avoid or do not want to become. The last component, *ought-to self*, concerns the possible selves that we believe we should become (Dornyei, 2009;

Markus & Nurius, 1986; Yowell, 2000). According to the possible selves construct, the individual tries to minimize the discrepancy between the current self and a possible future ideal self, and to increase the discrepancy between the current self and a feared self in the future (Higgins, 1987). This discrepancy motivates the individual's present behavior. Possible selves have been studied in various contexts in connection with various constructs, such as academic achievement (Cross & Markus, 1994; Leondari, Syngollitou, & Kiosseoglou, 1998; Oyserman, Bybee, Terry, & Hart-Johnson, 2004; Unemori, Omoregie, & Markus, 2004), academic achievement in minorities (Oyserman, Gant, & Ager, 1995), delinquency (Oyserman & Markus, 1990), and health behavior (Oulette, Hessling, Gibbons, Reis-Bergan, & Gerrard, 2005). The possible selves studies in academic contexts have demonstrated that learners with positive possible selves were better able to face failure, demonstrated better performance, had higher levels of self-esteem, showed more persistence on tasks, and depicted greater motivation for assigned tasks.

The first person to apply the possible selves framework to foreign/second language setting was Dornyei (2005, 2009). Dornyei, in his thory of the *L2 Motivational Self-System*, proposed to explore L2 motivation from a socially grounded dynamic system. According to his theory, the self is composed of three elements: the *ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self,* and *the learning experience***.** The *ideal L2 self* refers to the L2-specific facet of one's ideal self. That is, if an individual wants to become someone who speaks an L2, the ideal L2 self motivates the individual to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between the current self and the ideal self. The *ought-to L2 self* relates to attributes the individual

perceives as necessary to realize to meet the expectations of worthy others. The *L2 learning experience* concerns the motives related to the immediate learning environment and experiences of the individual (e.g., the impact of the teacher, the role of the peer group, or past experiences of success and failures) (Dornyei, 2009). In short, this new model suggests that there are three major sources of motivation to learn an L2: learners' projections of themselves as effective L2 users, the pressure coming from their social environment, and their learning experiences.

As Dornyei's new paradigm has been tested only in Asia (Japan and China), and the Middle East (Iran), I saw a need to conduct a study of possible selves to investigate its relation with language learning motivation in a different context and with different learners. Moreover, Dornyei's new paradigm looks only at the future ideal and ought- to selves of language learners. Hence, the motivational impact of the future "feared self" has not been investigated as of yet.

Motivation Research in Second Language Acquisition

I used the framework of Dornyei and Ushioda (2011) to summarize motivation research in both mainstream psychology and SLA.

With the contribution of advancements in mainstream educational research and the continued research carried out by second language researchers, second language motivation research has seen a tremendous evolution. Gardner and Lambert (1972), the pioneers of SLA motivation research, proposed that individuals' attitudes towards the target language community and the target language (L2), and their desire to affiliate themselves with the target group were the primary reasons

for individuals to learn a second language. The most widely known concepts associated with Gardner's work are *integrative motivation* and *instrumental motivation*. *Integrative motivation* refers to a positive disposition toward the L2 group and the inclination to interact with members of that community. *Instrumental motivation* refers to the potential pragmatic gains of L2 proficiency for the individual (e.g., learning L2 to get a better salary or a job). Gardner's studies have been criticized due to his exclusive focus on the unique context of bilingual Canada (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 1994a, 1994b). Researchers have argued that new approaches should be considered to understand motivation in foreign language contexts where learners have limited or no contact with target language speakers. In the 1990s, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) revised Gardner's original socio-psychological construct of L2 motivation by incorporating new elements from expectancy-value theory. The new constructs that were incorporated were *goal salience* (specificity of the learner's goals and the frequency of goal setting strategies used), *valance* (L2-learning related value component that includes the desire to learn the L2 and attitudes towards learning the L2), and *self-efficacy* (the expectancy to be able to perform various language activities).

There is a second line of motivation research in the second language domain (SLA) that has been influenced by advancements in general educational research, such as *self-determination theory* and *attribution theory*. Self-determination theory (SDT), which was proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000), is based on the idea that humans are seeking to fulfill basic psychological needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and learner autonomy were the

major constructs associated with SDT. *Intrinsic motivation* refers to doing something because it is inherently enjoyable or interesting (Deci & Ryan, 2000), and it is usually found to yield high-quality learning and creativity. *Extrinsic motivation* refers to, " …doing something because it leads to a separable outcome" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 55), and is found to be less effective when compared to intrinsic motivation. Deci and Ryan (2000) proposed that there are various levels of extrinsic motivation and the level of motivation would change depending on how much the individual internalizes the goal/task and the amount of autonomy the individual perceives. The sub-constructs associated with extrinsic motivation in SDT are: *external regulation*, *introjected-regulation*, *identified-regulation*, and *integrated-regulation*.

In SLA contexts, Noels (2001a, 2001b), and her colleagues, Pelletier, Vallerand, and Clement, are the leading researchers of SDT (Noels, Clement, Pelletier, 1999; Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2000). Noels et al. (1999) investigated how 78 French immersion learners' perceptions of their teacher's communicative style, and the extent to which they perceived it as supporting autonomy, were related to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. They found that intrinsically motivated learners showed greater motivation intensity, higher self-efficacy, and lower anxiety. When learners perceived their teacher's style as controlling, they had lower intrinsic motivation. Noels (2001a) recruited 322 lower level Spanish learners to investigate the impact of the teacher's feedback style on student motivation. She found that when the teacher's feedback was perceived as informative and autonomy-supportive, students felt more competent in learning Spanish. Studies in general have shown that learners who are intrinsically

motivated are better learners, and language environments that facilitate autonomy and autonomous learning lead to higher learner motivation and engagement (Noels, Clement, Pelletier, 1999; Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2000).

The second influence on second language (L2) motivation research coming from the general educational research field is Weiner's attribution theory. According to this theory, the attributions people make for the cause of their past successes or failures (task difficulty, luck, effort, ability), whether the results were caused by internal (ability, effort) or external (luck and task difficulty) factors, and to what extent they are stable or not (ability and effort), or controllable (effort and task difficulty) influence their current and future behaviors. Ushioda (1996b) used attribution theory to explain the attribution patterns in Irish learners of French and found that learners attributed positive outcomes to personal abilities and negative outcomes to unstable shortcomings. Later, Williams and Burden (1999) investigated the developmental aspects of learners' attributions in L2 studies. Their interview study revealed that there were clear age differences in the attributions participants made. That is, younger learners attributed their successes to listening and concentrating whereas older participants attributed their successes to ability, level of work, and various circumstances. In conclusion, these studies highlight the importance of maintaining a positive self-concept for learners to be successful in the language classroom. Therefore, learners who attribute positive L2 outcomes to personal ability or internal factors (e.g., language aptitude), and attribute negative outcomes to temporary shortcomings (e.g., lack of effort) were found to be better at

facing difficulties and developed better attitudes to language learning (Ushioda, 1996b; Williams & Burden, 1999).

More recently, motivation research in the second language acquisition (SLA) domain has focused on socio-cultural and contextual influences. This new line of inquiry suggests that language learning should be viewed as a socio-culturally situated process, bringing in the idea that social and cultural contexts in which the learner is situated influence learning and motivation, and that social and individual processes are interdependent. Thus, in this view, language learning motivation can be understood only by looking at the interrelations between the social and cultural context and the learner (Ushioda, 2009). For instance, research studies on "Willingness to Communicate" (MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1998) adopted a situated perspective to explore motivation to learn in L2 classrooms. The temporal and dynamic aspects of motivation have been recognized, and researchers have raised issues about appropriate research methods to capture these aspects. Williams and Burden (1997) highlighted that motivation is more than arousing interest as it also includes sustaining that interest and concerted efforts to achieve targeted goals. Ushioda (1996a) called for more qualitative research approaches in order to capture the dynamic aspect of motivation in the classroom. Dornyei and Otto (1998) proposed a comprehensive model that has three phases: a preactional phase (goal setting and intention enactment), an actional phase (implementing intention, executing the action), and a postactional phase (evaluating the outcome and determining further goals and intentions). The findings in general illustrate that student motivation decreases as learners advance in years of schooling and face

increasing contextual, cognitive, and linguistic requirements and pressures (Gardner, Masgoret, Tenant, & Mihic, 2004; Inbar, Donitsa-Schmidt, & Shohamy, 2001; Williams, Burden, & Al-Baharna, 2001).

Within a socio-cultural perspective on motivation, the psycho-dynamic perspective provides a more situative perspective by integrating *the self* and the *context*. From this perspective, motivation in the language classroom has been explored as situated within the complex interactions between the self and context. Norton (2000), one of the pioneers of this perspective, suggested that language learning should be viewed as a socio-culturally and socio-historically situated process. Finally, the most current perspective, the socio-dynamic perspective, characterizes motivation as the product of dynamic interactions among internal, social, and contextual factors. This move towards a more socially grounded, dynamic, and complex system that represents internal, social, and contextual factors has been welcomed by some L2 motivation researchers, including Dornyei (2005, 2009).

In conclusion, motivation research both in general educational contexts and in second/foreign contexts has been active for more than four decades. Considering the dynamic, temporal, and multifaceted aspects of motivation, it is plausible to assert that the aforementioned theories have brought different perspectives to the table in understanding how motivation works and under what conditions it is more or less influential on a learner's progress. However, as mentioned previously, existing theories are not sufficient enough to depict the full picture of motivation in the second language classroom; thus, new paradigms, including Dornyei's L2

motivational self-system, can significantly contribute to existing L2 motivation research.

Rationale of the Study

There were several reasons for conducting this research. Considering motivation as a multi-faceted construct, a learner might simultaneously experience a desire to learn a language, expect support from peers and parents, and be afraid of being ridiculed by peers or teachers. That is, learners deal with multiple actions, continuously negotiate and try new identities, continually try to develop skills and abilities, and experience various emotions while learning a language. Therefore, I proposed that applying the possible selves framework to language learning settings could help clarify how multiple goals, actions, and emotions interact and influence learners' motivation to learn a language.

Second, although there have been few studies that have investigated motivation from a future time perspective or possible selves framework (Bilde, Vaansteenkiste, & Lens, 2010; De Volder & Lens, 1982; Husman & Lens, 1999; Lens, Simons, & Dewitte, 2002; Leondari, Syngollitou, & Kiosseoglu, 1998; Oyserman, Bybee, Terry, & Hart-Johnson, 2004; Yowell, 2000), there was no research I could find that tied them together to explore motivation in the language learning context. This research project was intended to shed light on how these two future-oriented constructs might be useful in explaining motivation to learn a second language.

Third, Dornyei's L2 Motivational Self System paradigm is based on a possible selves framework but it has so far only included the perspective of the ideal self and

the ought-to self. However, the existing research tested whether the *feared self* is as powerful as the ideal self in motivating individuals (e.g., Hoyle & Sherill, 2006; Oyserman &Markus, 1990a). Thus, in this research I aimed at to incorporate the feared self construct into Dornyei's L2 Motivational Self System paradigm, an explanation of his theory that had not been tried in the L2 motivation literature.

Fourth, the current literature acknowledges that culture plays a role in the construction of possible selves and/or individuals' future orientations (Phalet, Andsriessen, & Lens, 2004; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009; Unemori, Omoregei, & Markus, 2004; Yowell, 2000). According to Unemori et al. (2004) American, Japanese, and American-Japanese students depicted different ideal and ought-to selves. Also, Taguchi et al. (2009) found that Chinese, Iranian, and Japanese learners had differing degrees of ideal and ought-to L2 selves. Taking these studies as a base, I postulated that studying Turkish language learners could bring a different perspective to the existing research as Turkish learners represent a culture that is different from the learners that have been studied before. First, the Turkish participants were from a culture that incorporates both eastern and western values. In addition, learners were in contact with target community individuals, which was also unique to this sample. Thus, I expected the cultural capital they brought to the U.S. and being in contact with the target community people might have an impact on their future orientation and on their L2 future selves, making the results of this study significantly different and unique.

In addition, Turkish college learners who are currently studying in U.S. universities seemed an interesting sample to study because there was likely to be

considerable degree of overlap in their aspirations and expectations (e.g., pursuing higher education, starting a career), as reflected in some similarities in their possible selves and future orientations regardless of their cultural context. However, I expected that they would show some differences in their dominant possible selves (e.g., ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, or feared L2 self). I expected these differences to reflect the understandings/ attitudes and priorities of these L2 learners. Also, on methodological grounds, because I was using correlational techniques, I wanted to limit unexplained variance that might be due to exogenous variables. Thus, having a sample group that was homogenous in some ways was another reason for conducting this study on learners from Turkey. In this way I hoped to reduce the possibility of unknown variables that could have affected the result if the participants had represented diverse backgrounds. Turkish learners studying in U.S. universities was an interesting group considering the fact that they are from a Muslim-country that represents a more modern life compared to many Islam countries; thus, I believed Turkish participants and their experiences, and the perceptions they gained during their study abroad might depict an interesting picture regarding their attitudes toward learning English and their attitudes toward American people that in the long run I expected possibly to impact their future selves in various domains including learning English.

To sum up, the results of this research project were expected to help L2 motivational theorists explain how future projections of individuals' ideal self and feared self contribute to their motivation to learn an L2. Also, the results were

expected to contribute to finding ways to maximize motivation to learn a language in second or foreign language settings in a particularly unique group of learners.

Research questions

1. (a) What is the role of future time perspectives and L2 motivational self system, instrumental motivation, and attitudes toward the L2 community for Turkish graduate students in learning and/or improving their English?

(b) What is the role of future time perspectives and L2 motivational self system, instrumental motivation, and attitudes toward the L2 community in predicting Turkish graduate students' national and oriented identities*?*

2. (a) Which of the aforementioned constructs (FTP and L2 motivational self system) are better predictors of Turkish graduate level learners' motivation to learn English?

(b) Which of the aforementioned constructs (FTP and L2 motivational self system) are better predictors of Turkish graduate level learners' identification with the target community or with their own community?

3. Does adding a measure of feared L2 possible self add significantly to the prediction of motivation over and beyond the ideal-self and ought-to self constructs?

4. (a) How do Turkish college learners' projections of themselves as future English users contribute to their present motivation to learn English or improve their current English proficiency level?

(b) How does living in the target community affect Turkish college learners' sense of selves? What identities do they enact or adopt?

Definitions of key terms

Future time perspective: *Future time perspective* is defined as "the degree to which and the way in which the chronological future is integrated into the present life-space of an individual through motivational goal setting processes" (Husman & Lens, 1999, p.114). In other words, it is the present anticipation of future goals (Husman & Lens, 1999).

Cognitive aspect of future time perspective: De Volder and Lens (1982) defined the cognitive aspect of FTP as, "the disposition to grasp the long term consequences of actual behavior" (p. 567).

Dynamic aspect of future time perspective: De Volder and Lens (1982) defined the dynamic aspect of FTP as, "the disposition to ascribe high valence to goals in the distant future) (p. 567).

Possible selves: *Possible selves* represent individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming (Dornyei, 2009; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Yowell, 2000).

Ideal self: The *ideal self* refers to what we would like to become in the future (Dornyei, 2009; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Yowell, 2000).

Ought to self: The *ought-to self* concerns the possible self that a person believes s/he should become (Dornyei, 2009; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Yowell, 2000).

Feared self: The f*eared or dreaded self* is the possible self that a person wants to avoid or does not want to become (Dornyei, 2009; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Yowell, 2000).

Ideal L2 self: This construct refers to the L2-specific facet of one's ideal self. That is, if an individual wants to become someone who speaks an L2, the ideal L2 self motivates the individual to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between the current self and the ideal self (Dornyei, 2009).

Ought-to L2 self: Similarly, the ought-to L2 self relates to attributes the individual perceives as necessary to realize the expectations of worthy others relative to L2 acquisition (Dornyei, 2009).

The L2 learning experience: This construct concerns the motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience of the individual associated with learning an L2 (e.g., the impact of the teacher, the role of the peer group, or past experiences of success and failures) (Dornyei, 2009).

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Motivation has been studied widely in second and foreign language (SL/FL) contexts, with second language acquisition (SLA) researchers exploring why some learners are more motivated to learn a second language (L2), and the factors that influence their motivation to learn an L2. Many researchers including Ushioda (2009) emphasized the significant role of motivation in the language classroom. She argued that motivation is a prerequisite for successful acquisition of L2. Although there have been various theories offered to explain the motivation phenomena in the L2 classroom, the advancements in domains such as education, psychology, and sociology demonstrate that more research is needed in foreign/second language acquisition discipline. In this chapter, a historical overview of L2 motivation research will be presented, followed by a look at the existing literatures on future time perspective theory, possible future selves theory, and the construct of identity respectively. The chapter concludes with a short section summarizing what has been published on the lived experiences of individuals who like the participants in this study frequently cross borders.

Second Language Motivation Research

The foci of motivation researchers in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) has been on why some language learners are more motivated to learn second language (L2) compared to others, and what contextual, situational, and cultural factors influence learners' L2 learning motivation and behavior. In this section, I will

present a historical overview of the research on motivation in foreign/second language education by using Dornyei and Ushioda (2011) framework.

The Social Psychological Period

L2 motivation research owes its origin to social psychologists, Wallace Lambert and Robert Gardner, who were working in the bilingual context of Canada, and who are seen as the pioneers of SLA motivation research. They considered second languages as mediating factors between different ethno-linguistic communities. For them, motivation to learn the language of the other community was the primary reason for enhancing or hindering intercultural communication and affiliation. Gardner and Lambert (1972) proposed that individuals' attitudes towards the target language community and the target language (L2), and their desire to affiliate themselves with the target group were the primary reasons for people to learn an L2. The most widely known concepts associated with this work were *integrative orientation* and *instrumental orientation*. *Integrative orientation or motivation* refers to a positive disposition toward the L2 group and the inclination to interact with members of that community. *Instrumental orientation* or *motivation* refers to the potential pragmatic gains associated with L2 proficiency for the individual (e.g., learning L2 to get a better salary or a job). In their study in the bilingual context of Canada and some parts of the U.S. (e.g., Maine, Louisiana), they found integrative motivation as a significant factor that leads learners to learn the language. However, their study in the Philippines revealed a different result. They found that in a context where there is no direct contact with target community

members, learners might be only instrumentally motivated. Gardner and Lambert's motivation constructs, the integrative aspect in particular, remained central to L2 motivation research for two decades, and it still remains a significant exploration in the SLA domain today.

Gardner and Lambert's (1972) constructs have received some criticism due to their heavy focus on the unique context of Canada (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011). Researchers, like Dornyei (1994, 1998, 2009), have argued that new approaches should be considered to understand the motivation of learners in foreign language contexts where there is limited or no contact with the target language users.

Another social psychological theory that proved influential was Schumann's (1978) acculturation theory. Schumann investigated the multi-ethnic setting from a minority perspective and also focused on individuals' processes of acculturation. In his views, the social and psychological distance between an individual and the dominant group is detrimental to language attainment. The extent to which individuals acculturate themselves to the target culture controls their language attainment. In other words, an individual can acquire the language only when he or she establishes or is allowed to establish a contact with the dominant group. Schumann reported on a group of adult learners, one of whom was Alberto, a Spanish speaker from Puerto Rico. Although Alberto lived in an English speaking target community for 10 months, he showed little improvement. For Schumann, it was the social and psychological distance that limited Alberto's improvement in learning English. Similarly, Polat (2007) studied Kurdish learners' acquisition of regional Turkish accent. He found that when individuals attributed higher degree of

positive values to the target community, namely to the Turkish-speaking community, they tended to have higher identification with the target community and a more native-like accent.

The Cognitive-situated Period

The second period of L2 motivation research can be characterized by cognitive theories that became influential in educational psychology and later influenced L2 motivation research. Also, there was a shift from a broader social and psychological perspective of motivation to a more situated perspective, in which the emphasis was put on the classroom as a particular context in which much language instruction takes place. Three approaches particularly had impact on motivation research in the L2 area: *self-determination theory, attribution theory,* and *self-efficacy theory*.

Self-determination theory. Self-determination theory (SDT) proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000) is based on the idea that individuals have three basic psychological needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and learner autonomy were the major constructs associated with SDT. *Intrinsic motivation* refers to doing something because it is inherently enjoyable or interesting (Deci & Ryan, 2000), and it is usually found to yield high-quality learning and creativity. *Extrinsic motivation* means " …doing something because it leads to a separable outcome" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 55), and is expected to be less effective when compared to intrinsic motivation with respect to motivation to learn. Deci and Ryan (2000) proposed that there are various levels of extrinsic motivation and that the level of motivation would change depending on how much the individual

internalizes the goal or task and the amount of autonomy the individual perceives in the context. *External regulation*, the least autonomous form, means performing a task to satisfy an external demand, or to obtain an externally imposed reward contingency. *Introjected regulation*, the second type of extrinsic motivation, refers to a type of internal regulation that is still controlled because the individual performs or behaves in order to avoid guilt or anxiety. *Identification*, a more self-determined form of extrinsic motivation, refers to individuals' identifying themselves with the behavior, personally seeing the importance of tasks, and valuing the behaviors/tasks in relation to themselves. *Integration*, the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation, occurs when the individual fully accepts and assimilates the purpose of learning tasks.

In SLA contexts, Noels (2001a, 2001b), and his colleagues, Pelletier, Vallerand, and Clement, are the leading researchers of SDT (Noels, Clement, Pelletier, 1999; Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2000). Noels et al. (1999) investigated for learners in a French immersion context how teachers' communicative styles and the extent to which students perceived them as autonomy supportive vs controlling influenced their learning. They found that when learners perceived their teacher was more autonomy supportive, they became intrinsically motivated, which led them to demonstrate positive motivational intensity, high self efficacy, and lower anxiety. Also, a more controlling teacher style was found to lower self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation, and to increase anxiety. In addition, Noels (2003) studied college learners in a bilingual setting and found that the more learners internalized the reason for learning a language, the more they retained

their interest to learn the language. Also, the autonomy supportive feedback from the teacher increased learners' intrinsic motivation.

In conclusion, the general trends from this approach to motivation illustrate that when learners perceive that they have control over the tasks in which they are engaged and the tasks are personally relevant and important, they exert more effort, show more persistence, and become more intrinsically motivated resulting in more positive affective, motivational, and cognitive behaviors in the classroom, including the language classroom. The studies in general have shown that learners who are intrinsically motivated are better learners, and a language environment that facilitates autonomy and autonomous learning leads to higher learner motivation and engagement (Ehrman & Dornyei, 1998; Noels, Clement, Pelletier, 1999; Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2000; Ushioda, 1996a).

Attribution Theory. The second influence on second language (L2) motivation research coming from the general educational research field is Weiner's attribution theory. According to Weiner's attribution theory, the attributions learners make for the cause of their past successes or failures (task difficulty, luck, effort, or ability), whether the results were caused by internal (ability or effort) or external (luck or task difficulty) factors, and to what extent these are stable or not (ability or effort), or controllable (effort or task difficulty), influence their current and future behaviors. Many researchers have called for more research about attribution theory in second/foreign language contexts. Yet, despite the fact that the importance of causal attribution has been highlighted in SLA research, very little

research has been conducted (Ushioda, 1996b; Williams & Burden, 1999). The studies highlight the importance of maintaining a positive self-concept for learners to be successful in the language classroom. Therefore, learners who attributed positive L2 outcomes to personal ability or internal factors (e.g., language ability), and attribute negative outcomes to temporary shortcomings (e.g., lack of effort) were found to copw with challenges better and the result of this they developed better attitudes toward language learning (Ushioda, 1996b; Williams & Burden, 1999).

Self-efficacy theory. According to another theory applied to SLA, self-efficacy refers to individuals' beliefs about their capabilities to execute certain tasks. *Self-efficacy* is the label most often used to refer to the expectancy component of expectancy X value theory of motivation (Expectancy= expectations of success). According to Bandura (1977), there are four sources of self-efficacy: previous performance, vicarious experience (observing others), verbal persuasion, and physiological states. The level of efficacy determines the choices an individual makes, the amount of effort he or she exerts, and his and her persistence in executing a task. Therefore, individuals' self-efficacy beliefs are posited as playing a major role in their motivation, including the motivation to learn a second/foreign language. In the 1990s, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) revised Gardner's socio-psychological construct of L2 motivation. The new constructs that they incorporated were *goal salience* (the frequency of goal setting strategies used and how specific the learner's goals), *valance* (value component which is related to L2-learning), and

self-efficacy (the expectancy learners develop to perform various language activities).

A related construct that is tied to the expectancy-value perspective on motivation, highly recognized in education settings, is goal-setting theory which later became the major cornerstone of future time perspective theory that will be discussed shortly. As the name suggests, this theory highlights the importance of goals in achieving the targeted aim. Goals in general generate motivation by pinpointing the incongruity between the present level of accomplishment and their ideal level of accomplishment. The existing research demonstrates that individuals with goals are more successful than those without goals (Locke & Latham, 1990). Setting a goal generally enhances performance, but it matters how specific and difficult the goal is. That is, difficult goals energize the behavior by means of effort and persistence, and specific goals direct the behavior by means of increasing attention with a goal-directed focus and strategic planning. Another aspect of goal setting theory is the importance of goal proximity. Goal proximity refers to setting goals in the near future versus far distal future. That is, goals can be short-term or long-term, or a series of short-term goals can be linked to one major long-term goal. Goal proximity is found to affect persistence and intrinsic motivation. Individuals, compared to those with long-term goals, depict more persistence when the goals are short term. In relation to intrinsic motivation, short term goals enhance intrinsic motivation for uninteresting tasks, but long term goals facilitate intrinsic motivation on interesting tasks (Bandura & Schunk, 1981).

The Process Oriented Period

The third line of motivation research in second language acquisition (SLA) domain has focused on socio-cultural and contextual influences. This new line of inquiry suggested that language learning should be viewed as a socio-culturally situated process, which refers to the idea that social and cultural contexts in which the learner is situated influence learning and motivation, and social and individual processes are interdependent. Thus, language learning motivation can be explored only by looking at the interrelations between the social and cultural contexts and the learner (Ushioda, 2009). To give an example, research studies on "Willingness to Communicate" (MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1998) have explored motivation to learn in L2 classrooms from a situated perspective. In this period, the temporal and dynamic aspects of motivation have been recognized, and researchers have raised issues about appropriate research methods to capture these temporal and dynamic aspects. Williams and Burden (1997) highlighted that motivation is more than arousing interest as it also includes sustaining that interest and supporting the effort needed to achieve targeted goals. Ushioda (1996) has called for more qualitative research approaches in order to capture the dynamic aspects of motivation in the classroom. Later, Dornyei and Otto (1998) proposed a comprehensive model that has three phases: a preactional phase (goal setting and intention enactment), an actional phase (implementing intention, executing the action), and a postactional phase (evaluating the outcome and determining further goals and intentions).

Within a socio-cultural perspective on motivation, the *psycho-dynamic perspective* provides a more situative perspective that integrates *the self* and the *context* in which learners engage. With respect to this perspective, motivation in the language classroom has been explored through the complex interactions between the self and context. Norton (2000), one of the pioneers of this perspective, suggested that language learning should be viewed as a socio-culturally and socio-historically situated process. Finally, the most current perspective, the socio-dynamic perspective, characterizes motivation as the product of dynamic interactions among internal, social and contextual factors. This move towards a more socially grounded, dynamic and complex systems that harbors internal, social and contextual factors has been welcomed by some L2 motivation researchers, including Dornyei (2005, 2009).

A New Paradigm: The L2 Motivational Self System

Dornyei (2005, 2009) offered a new paradigm, *L2 Motivational Self-System*, in which he portrayed L2 motivation from a socially grounded dynamic system. According to the L2 motivation Self System view, the self is composed of three elements: *the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self,* and *the learning experience***.** The *ideal L2 self* refers to the L2-specific facet of one's ideal self. That is, if an individual wants to become someone who speaks an L2, the ideal L2 self motivates the individual to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between the current self and the ideal self. The *ought-to L2 self* refers to attributes the individual perceives as necessary to meet the expectations of worthy others. The *L2 learning*

experience concerns the motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience of the individual (e.g., the impact of the teacher, the role of the peer group, or past experiences of success and failures) (Dornyei, 2009). In short, this new model suggests that there are three major sources of motivation to learn an L2: learners' projections of themselves as effective L2 users, the social pressure coming from their environment, and their learning experiences.

In conclusion, motivation research both in education contexts and particularly in second/foreign contexts has been active for more than four decades. Considering the dynamic, temporal, and multifaceted aspects of motivation, it is plausible to believe that the aforementioned theories brought different perspectives to the table in understanding how motivation works and under what conditions it is more or less influential.

Future Time Perspective

To many people, the consequences of tasks in the future are as important as are the immediate consequences. Future time perspective (FTP) theories emphasize the motivational importance of future goals. FTP is defined as "the present anticipation of future goals" (Simons, Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Lacante, 2004, p. 122), or "the degree to which and the way in which the chronological future is integrated into the present life-space of an individual through motivational goal setting processes" (Husman & Lens, 1999, p.114).

Theoretical background

People differ in how they perceive the future. Some value their present behaviors and see their current behaviors as a venue to reach their future goals. By contrast, others would rather live in the present; they do not foresee the future consequences of their present activities. This difference in length or depth of future time perspective represents an important individual difference (Lens, 1986; Nuttin & Lens, 1985), and it became one of the major tenets of future time perspective theory. When carrying out a task, individuals are said to be motivated by present goals or future goals; and the temporal distance to these goals can be short (e.g., going for a swim this afternoon), or long (e.g., getting a Ph.D. to become a professor). Individuals with a short future time perspective (FTP) set their goals in the near future whereas those with long FTP set their goals in the distant future. To give an example, two high school graduates, one with a long FTP and one with a short FTP, start medical school at the same time. Graduating from medical school in 7 years is relatively closer or shorter for the student with long FTP when we compare it with the student with a short FTP. Thus, the extension of FTP and the psychological distance from individually-set goals are correlated negatively. That is, individuals with longer FTP perceive the same set goal as psychologically closer than individuals with a short FTP (Moreas & Lens, 1991).

In 1982, De Volder and Lens distinguished between cognitive and dynamic aspects of Future Time Perspective (FTP) in order to explain the benefits of having an extended FTP. The *cognitive* aspect refers to a "disposition to grasp the long term consequences of actual behavior" (p. 567), and the *dynamic* aspect of FTP refers to "the disposition to ascribe high valence to goals in the distant future" (p. 567).

According to FTP theory, persons with long FTP have two advantages over those with short FTP. First, they can better connect the relationship between the present task and their future goals; they can foresee the utility value of present tasks because these present tasks are perceived as more instrumental to long-term goal achievement. Second, because the psychological distance to goal in the distant future is shorter for people with longer FTP and as the anticipated incentive value of a future goal decreases when the future goal is delayed in time, individuals with long FTP perceive present tasks as more valuable (Simons, 2001). In summary, people with extended/long FTP perceive present activities/tasks as more instrumental because these help them achieve goals in the near future as well as goals in the distant future (cognitive aspects), and they value their current activities/tasks more because the anticipated value of the future goal is higher (dynamic aspect).

Empirical Research Findings

Early research on future time perspective investigated the relationship between the extension of future time perspective (FTP) and learners' motivation. De Volder and Lens (1982) studied 251 Grade 11 students from Belgium in a quantitative study, and they reported that students' motivation and length of their FTP were positively correlated. More motivated students attached more value and attached more instrumental value to their assignments for reaching their future goals. Moreas and Lens (as cited in Bilde et al. 2011) asked ninth-grade students to rate the significance of goals and the importance of education for achieving those goals and found that students with long FTP were significantly more motivated than

students with short FTP. Lens (2001) and Lens et al. (2002) also found that students with long FTP were more motivated than students with short FTP.

Future time perspective researchers have also studied the instrumental value of school tasks and its impact on learners. Lens and Decryenaere (1991) found that high school students differed in their perceptions of the instrumental value of their school tasks for success in life. Students who were highly or moderately motivated were more aware of the importance of schoolwork compared to students who were less motivated. Creten et al. (2001) also investigated whether students differed in their perceptions of the usefulness of school courses (e.g., mathematics, languages, and history) in vocational schools. The researchers found that students who perceived their studies as instrumental to their near or distal future goals were more motivated for their courses. The instrumental value of school tasks not only enhanced student motivation but also contributed to more effective learning strategies and better school performance. Lens et al. (2004) found that students scored higher on deep-level learning and lower on surface-level learning when the present task was experienced as having high instrumentality. Simons et al. (2004) reported similar findings and concluded that students who perceived high utility value for present tasks did better than students who had low instrumental value for present tasks. Lens et al. (2012) argued that a longer future time perspective which was created by more distant goals, enhances the strength of the instrumental motivation to pursue those goals in the present time.

Qualifying these relationships, Van Calster et al. (as cited in Bilde et al. 2011) reported that in addition to perceived instrumentality of their schoolwork, students'

affective attitudes (negative vs positive) toward the future influenced their motivation and grades. In other words, perceived instrumentality was associated with enhanced motivation and grades but only for those students who had positive attitudes toward the future. Having a negative attitude toward the future moderated the positive effect of perceived instrumentality on motivation and grades. This result indicates that perceived instrumentality cannot always be associated with positive outcomes. In conclusion, the empirical findings suggest that being future oriented and recognizing the utility value of present tasks for future goals generally enhance student motivation, persistence, and performance as students report more motivation for school work, make more use of effective learning strategies, and work harder and perform better at schools (Husman & Lens, 1999; Lens, 1998, 2001; Lens, Simons, & Dewitte, 2002; Simons, Dewitte, & Lens, 2004).

In addition to instrumental value, the research on future time perspective (FTP) theory has inquired into how different types of instrumentality influences learners' motivation, persistence, and performance. The four types of instrumentality formed by crossing the two dimensions of degree of utility value (low vs high) and reasons for engaging in the activity (externally regulated vs internally regulated) have been investigated (see Phalet et al., 2004; Simons et al., 2000; Simons et al., 2004). When a task has high utility value, it means the individual can anticipate the benefits of doing the particular task for reaching his/her future goal. When an individual perceives his/her behavior as being externally regulated, the person engages in the task in order to get a reward or prevent a punishment. Conversely, when the task is internally regulated, the

individual carries out the task for its own sake. The reasons for engaging in a task (external regulation versus internal regulation) have also been examined in various studies. Simons et al. (2000) explored the motivational implications of different types of instrumentality for an individual's goal orientation. Results showed that individuals with high perceptions of utility and with internal regulation were more likely to have positive learning outcomes. Similar results were found in Simons (2001), Simons et al. (2000), and Simons and Lens' (1999) studies. Lens (2001) and Simons and Lens (1999) studied different programs (nursing, pre-school teacher, psychology). They asked the participants to evaluate the usefulness of each course they were taking for their future job and whether their engagement in those courses was externally regulated or internally regulated. The results demonstrated that students who found the courses useful for both training and for their future jobs were more excited, tried to master the assigned task fully, showed more motivated behavior, and had better exam results. In addition, internally regulated learners were found to be more task-oriented; they persisted longer, studied more regularly, and received better grades than those who were externally regulated. Similarly, Simons (2001) also found that 11th and 12th grade students who were internally regulated and who perceived high utility value of the current tasks for their future goals depicted more adaptive motivational behavior.

More recent research on future time perspective (FTP) has looked at the relationship between FTP and self-determination theory to explain the motivational impact of the future. More specifically, researchers have investigated whether the content of the future goal (intrinsic versus extrinsic) and the context (autonomy-

supportive vs controlling) influenced individuals' motivation, persistence, and performance. Vansteenkiste et al. (2003a) investigated the impact of future intrinsic versus future extrinsic goal striving on participants' deep level learning, performance, and persistence. Participants were given a rationale for engaging in a present task (e.g., doing sports for remaining healthy at an older age, an intrinsic future goal, or doing sports to remain physically attractive to others at an older age, an extrinsic future goal). The results supported that future intrinsic goals generated more effort expenditure and more autonomous task-regulation, led to more conceptual learning, and resulted in better performance and greater persistence in comparison with future extrinsic goals. Vansteenkiste et al. (2003b) looked at how autonomy-supportive versus controlling contexts for future goals influenced participants' performance. The study indicated that students performed better when it was explained to them that their behavior would yield important future intrinsic benefits and when the message was conveyed in an autonomy-supportive fashion. To sum up, future intrinsic goal framing promoted autonomous task regulation, effort expenditure, performance, and persistence whereas future extrinsic goal framing had a debilitating impact on the aforementioned outcomes. Therefore, it can be concluded that though every future goal is likely to enhance perceived instrumentality of one's present behavior, not every future goal generates positive outcomes.

Although there has been some research on the motivational effects of a future time perspective (FTP) on learners' motivation, cognitive engagement, effort expenditure, and persistence, no study has addressed the second/foreign language

learner. Thus, there is great need to conduct a study to investigate the role of future time perspective on language learning motivation. In addition, considering the particular characteristics of a language classroom, the language learner might interpret the effect of the future with respect to instrumentality and valence differently. Moreover, much of the research on FTP has been conducted with populations in Europe (see Andriessen et al., 2006; Bilde et al., 2010; Paetsma & Van der Veen, 2011; Simons et al., 2006) Thus, the replication of these studies in other contexts (e.g., foreign/second language learning in the U.S.) and with various populations (second/foreign language learners) would contribute to the generalizability of the results. Furthermore, many studies have shown that time perspective is strongly affected by culture (e.g., Jones, 1988, 1994), thereby underlining the need for studies with different populations and learners from different ethnic backgrounds and nationalities (Husman & Shell, 2008; McInerney, 2004).

Motivation and FTP

Future time perspective (FTP) is believed to evolve from motivational goal setting that is formed by more or less distal goals espoused by an individual (Nuttin& Lens, 1985). According to goal setting theory, individuals have mental representations of the ideal states of their behavior, object, or event, and the mismatch between their current state and the ideal state directs them to formulate a plan to remove the incongruity. Thus, the incongruity acts as the motivational incentive, and the plan provides a direction to reach the ideal state, behavior, or

event. The corrective motivation theorists added a component to plan-directed behavior, suggesting that plan-directed behavior is a dynamic, flexible process by which the individual goes back and forth between the current state and ideal state in order to achieve the ideal state but s/he is also ready to change and revise the ideal state in case of an ineffective plan. There are two types of discrepancies: discrepancy reduction and discrepancy creation. *Discrepancy reduction* is based on discrepancy-identifying feedback that requires plans and corrective feedback. Here the basic idea is that a plan leads to action chain in which an individual detects present-ideal inconsistencies, generates a plan to remove or decrease the inconsistency, instigates plan-regulated behavior, and finally monitors feedback to see if the inconsistencies still exist or not. *Discrepancy creation* is based on a feed-forward system, meaning that the individual proactively sets a future goal. The individual sets a higher goal (an ideal state) that only exists his or her mind. Although both discrepancy reduction and discrepancy creation provide motivational bases for action, the key component for future time perspective theory is "discrepancy creation" because it is proactive and growth pursuing, and is based on future goal setting (Reeve, 2005).

As mentioned in the previous section, goal setting theory highlights the importance of goals in achieving the targeted aim. Goals in general generate motivation by pinpointing the incongruity between the present level of accomplishment and the ideal level of accomplishment as stated above. Setting a goal generally enhances performance, but it also depends on how specific and difficult the goal is, whether the goal is short-term or long-term, and the value

attached to the goal. The two aspects of future time perspective theory that are linked to goal setting theory are the cognitive aspect and the dynamic aspect as discussed earlier.

Future Possible Selves

Possible selves, introduced by Markus and Nurius (1986), represent individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming. The *hoped-for self* or *ideal self* refers to what a person would like to become in the future. The *feared* or *dreaded self* is the possible self that an individual want to avoid or does not want to become. The last component, *ought-to self*, concerns the possible selves that a person might become – the self that the individual believes others want him or her to be (Dornyei, 2009; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Yowell, 2000). "The possible selves that are hoped for might include the successful self, the creative self, the rich self, the thin self, or the loved and admired self, whereas the dreaded possible selves could be the alone self, the depressed self, the incompetent self, the alcoholic self, the unemployed self, or the bag lady self" (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 954).

Theoretical background

Possible selves theory provides a link between cognition and motivation. The discrepancy between the future ideal self and the current self motivates the individual to act in a way so as to minimize this discrepancy. In contrast, the individual tries to maximize the discrepancy between the potential negative future self (feared self) and his or her current self. This discrepancy motivates the present

behavior of the individual, and it does so in two ways: it provides a clear goal for which to strive, and it energizes the individual to pursue actions to reach that goal (Leondari, Syngollitou, & Kiosseoglou, 1998; Markus & Ruvolo, 1989).

Researchers have presented different arguments about the source of possible selves. For Markus and Nurius (1986), an individual's repertoire of possible selves can be regarded as the cognitive manifestation of lasting goals, aspirations, motives, and fears. Individuals construct their future possible selves based on their past experiences. In contrast, Reeve (2005) claimed that possible selves are usually social in origin, the result of social comparisons in which the individuals compare thoughts, feelings, characteristics, and behaviors with those of salient others. Although there is no limit to the number of possible selves an individual can construct, the number of possible selves usually depends on socio-cultural and historical concepts, and the models, images, and symbols in the individual's immediate social environment (Reeve, 2005).

Although all possible selves have the potential to influence current behavior, some are more likely to do so than others. Possible selves are more likely to influence one's behavior when they represent a self-defining goal that includes specific behavioral strategies for pursuing that goal. These have been termed as *self-regulatory possible selves* (Oyserman, Bybee, Terry & Hart-Johnson, 2004). Gonzales et al. (2001) found that articulating a goal elevated a person's mood, improved well-being, and created optimism; however, goals without planning are unlikely to result in better performance or success. When goals are accompanied by implementation intentions (e.g., strategies to reach the goal, or precautions in case of a failure), the

individual is more likely to achieve success (Gollwitzer, 1996). The *self-enhancing possible selves,* on the other hand, contribute to positive feelings about the self but do not have direct influences on current behavior; therefore, they are less likely to play a role on motivation. For instance, an individual's envisioning of his or her academic possible self "studying and avoiding distractions" is likely to motivate behavior because it includes strategies that act as a guide to reach the targeted goal. In contrast, envisioning the self simply as a high school graduate might only create positive feelings about the self and is less likely to motivate current behavior (Oyserman et al., 2004).

The argument about the impact of possible selves on motivation acquired another aspect when Oyserman and Markus (1990a) argued that possible selves that are balanced by a countervailing possible self within the same domain provide "maximal motivational effectiveness" (p.113). Oyserman and Slaz (1993) and Oyserman et al. (2002) also proposed that positive and negative possible selves in the same domain are crucial to generating motivation because individuals strive towards attaining the positive selves while simultaneously attempting to avoid negative selves. Oyserman et al. (1995) have also shown that having a balance of positive and negative selves is predictive of effort and persistence. Therefore, theoretically, it can be deduced that having an ideal self and counteracting feared self in the same domain will maximize the individual's motivation to attain the personally set goals.

Empirical Research Findings

Possible selves have been studied in a wide range of populations and context. After Markus and Nurius' (1986) introduction, the construct has been associated with academic achievement (e.g., Clements & Seidman, 2002; Oyserman et al., 2004), academic achievement in minorities (Oyserman, Gant, & Ager, 1995), delinquency (e.g., Oyserman & Markus, 1990, Oyserman & Slatz, 1993), health behavior (eg., Qulette et al., 2005; Hooker & Kaus, 1994), and aging (Hooker, 1992). In addition to the aforementioned studies, there are a few studies that investigated the role of possible selves on learners and learning. Cross and Markus (1994) found that college students who had well-elaborated positive possible selves were better able to face failure and had access to more strategies to avoid future failures. The relationship between academic achievement, motivation, and future selves was the focus of Leondari, Syngollitou, and Kiosseoglou' s (1998) study. They found that learners who had well-elaborated, specific positive possible selves demonstrated better academic performance, had higher levels of self-esteem, showed more persistence on tasks, and depicted greater motivation for assigned tasks.

Some studies also looked at how learners from different ethnic backgrounds constructed possible selves. Unemori, Omoregei, and Markus (2004) studied the possible selves of students from European-American, Chilean, Japanese-American, and Japanese cultural contexts. They investigated the similarities and differences in possible selves generated by students with different cultural and ethnic backgrounds. They found that European-Americans' self-portraits emphasized individuality and independence whereas the Japanese self-portraits valued finding an appropriate and harmonious place in the social group. Chileans' self-portraits

highlighted the importance of the expectations and desires of others as they valued familial or social networks. Japanese-Americans' self-portraits mirrored the Japanese self-portraits. Yowell (2000) investigated the role of aspirations in academic performance, future orientation, and possible selves of Latino boys and girls. The researcher looked at the content, priority, optimism, internality, temporal extension, and specificity of students' ideal selves. He found that Latino students showed high educational and occupational aspirations, high optimism, and high internal control across several domains of hoped-for selves. In addition, the result of this research demonstrated that there were gender differences in the construction of possible selves in different domains. That is, the occupational domain was the highest priority for boys whereas girls equally prioritized occupational and familial domains.

In addition to the impact of possible selves on academic achievement, the cognitive basis for the motivational impact of hoped for and feared possible selves has interested some researchers. Norman and Aron (2002) investigated the cognitive grounds for the driving force of hoped for and feared possible selves. They found that individual motivation to attain or avoid important possible selves were determined by the "availability" of the possible selves, "accessibility" and "the extent to which the individuals perceive they have a control over it." *Availability* refers to the ease of picturing or constructing an outcome. *Accessibility* refers to how easily and quickly a self-schema of possible selves can be brought into one's awareness or working self-concept. *Perceived control* refers to how much an individual believes his/her behaviors can influence the attainment or avoidance of a possible self. The

results of the study indicated that more motivation was achieved when a possible self is available, accessible, and under one's perceived control.

Although there is research that has investigated the role of possible selves in several domains, there is a scarcity of research that has addressed the language learning domain. With his new paradigm, L2 Motivational self system, Dornyei (2009), tied Gardner's integrative motivation to possible selves theory, and aimed to explain motivation in the L2 classroom within this framework. There are three constituents of this new framework: the *ideal L2 self,* the *ought-to L2 self,* and the *learning experience***.** The *ideal L2 self* represents an L2-specific facet of one's ideal self. In other words, if an individual wants to become someone who speaks an L2, the ideal L2 self motivates the individual to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between the current self and the ideal self. The *ought-to L2 self* relates to the attributes the individual perceives as a necessity to meet the expectations of worthy others. The *L2 learning experience* refers to the motives associated with the immediate learning environment and experience of the individual (e.g., the impact of the teacher, the role of the peer group, or past experiences of success and failures) (Dornyei, 2009). Empirical findings from studies that are based on Dornyei's new paradigm have supported this new perspective. Results clearly established a relationship between integrativeness and L2 motivation in various foreign language contexts, such as Japan, China, and Iran (see Dornyei, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009). Papi (2010) investigated the relationship between L2 motivational self system, L2 anxiety, and motivated behavior on Iranian learners. He found that the variables in the L2 motivational self system, namely the

ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience, significantly contributed to intended effort. Also, the ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience decreased students' English anxiety whereas the ought-to L2 self significantly made them more anxious in the Iranian context.

Taking Gardner's (2001) concept of integrativeness as a starting point, Dornyei (2005) suggested that the possible selves framework shifts the focus from desirable attributes of the target group, which is usually stable, to the changing personal attributes of the learner. That is, it provides an individualized, interpretive context for current behavior. Therefore, the focus is toward a more individualized version of motivation on how motivational processes work within individual learners, in particular language contexts. For all its strength in reconceptualizing Gardner's (2001) concept integrative motivation to explain L2 learning, the model lacks a major construct, one that could be called the *feared self*. Oyserman and Markus (1990), as mentioned above, argued that the impact of the desired ideal self would be maximized if it were balanced by a counteracting feared possible self in the same domain. Hoyle and Sherrill (2006) also claimed that the motivation conferred by balanced possible selves is additive, and that involving both approach and avoidance is greater than the motivation conferred by the ideal or feared self alone. Thus, in order to understand fully the motivation in L2 learners and explore its relation with other psychological constructs, it is crucial to investigate the influence of the feared L2 self as well as the ideal and ought-to L2 self. Investigating L2 motivation from the perspective of Dornyei's L2 motivational self system and complementing his framework with *feared L2 self* construct will broaden the

literature on L2 motivation. Hypothetically, an individual's desire to speak a second language like a native speaker will be as much a powerful motivator as his or her being afraid of losing L1 identity. Thus, the potential clash between the hoped for L2 self and feared L2 self in language learners can bring a different perspective in explaining L2 motivation.

In conclusion, the aforementioned studies are a rich source of information about the numerous ways in which individuals project themselves into the future, but they offer little in explaining the particulars of how the future-oriented representations of the self influence current behavior. In other words, on the basis of the existing literature, a great deal is known about what possible selves are but relatively little about what they do. Secondly, there is no consistency on a time horizon offered in studies of possible selves. Some studies did not either offer research participants a time horizon or they offered a time horizon that was random. The variability across studies is notable. For instance, Ouellette et al. (2005) asked research participants to describe themselves as they will be "10 to 20 years from now" whereas Quinlan (2005) asked college students to describe themselves "2 years after college." As the variability in time horizon is rarely considered (Oyserman & Markus, 1990; Strahan & Wilson, 2006), relatively little is known about how temporal distance affects the influence of possible selves on motivation and behavior. Third, I had hoped that the impact of possible selves in a less well investigated domain, such as foreign/second language study may be particularly useful in order to gain better understanding about language learning.

Motivation and Possible Selves

It is argued that possible selves (PSs) act as an incentive for action. Thus, the construct is directly related to motivation as the individual tries to minimize the discrepancy between his or her current self and future ideal self, and to increase the discrepancies between the current self and feared self in the future. These discrepancy motivate the present behavior of the individual. Possible selves affect motivation in two ways, providing a clear goal to strive for, and then energizing the individual to pursue actions to reach that goal (Leondari, Syngollitou, & Kiosseoglou, 1998; Markus & Ruvolo, 1989). The possible selves construct might sound similar to goal theory but it is important to make the distinction between goals and future self-guides (possible selves). Pizzolato (2006) proposed, "Unlike goal theory, possible selves are explicitly related to a long-term developmental goal involving goal setting, volition (via adherence to associated schemas), and goal achievement, but are larger than any one or combination of these constructs" (p. 58). Thus, it can be said that "possible selves" is a broader concept that subsumes goal-setting theories.

Identity

The concept of "identity" refers to various meanings attached to an individual by himself or herself or by others. Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner, and Cain (1998) defined identity as follows: "… People tell others who they are, but even more important, they tell themselves and then try to act as though they are who they say they are. These self-understandings, especially those with strong emotional

resonance for the teller, are what we refer to as identities" (p. 3). Therefore, identity is not only who the individual conceives the self to be, but also how the individual interprets the self , both within his or her inner groups as well as to the larger society. Norton (1997) highlighted the dynamicity of the concept of identity, defining it as, "how people understand their relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how people understand their possibilities for the future" (p. 410).

Candlin (1998) proposed four aspects of identity that helped the conceptualization for this study. First, identity should not be seen as a unitary concept but rather as a multitude of selves found in the different linguistic practices articulated in the present, in the past, historically, and cross-culturally. Second, identity is a product of cultural practices that arise from ideologies and socialization practices resonating in wider patterns of communication. Third, the self is not individually possessed but rather it is negotiated and co-constructed with interlocutors through discourse. And finally, there is a constant discursively mediated struggle between individuals as creators of their own identities and as animators of identities that are created for them.

Theoretical Background

The notion of *identity* has been a human concern since Greek times. In terms of modern times, it has been a subject to philosophers, psychologists, anthropologists, and educational researchers. George Mead (1934), recognized as the father of the notion of the identity, proposed that the self is a product of social

interaction, and he underlined the importance of interaction and language in the development of the self. In his work, he asserted that the mind and the self "are without residue of social emergent; and that language, in the form of vocal gesture, provides the mechanism for their emergence" (p. xiv). Mead distinguished between the "I" and the "me" of the self. For him, these two are related parts of a self. The "I" is the response of the organism to the attitudes of others; the "me" is the organized set of attitudes of others that one assumes to be. The attitudes of others creates the organized "me", to which one reacts as an "I". The "I" and "me" cannot exist without the other. In order to have access to the social "me", one needs to become an object to himself or herself. This can be achieved only by taking the attitudes of other individuals toward the self within a social environment or context of experience and behavior in which the individual and others are involved. And, the only way to do this is to utilize language and/or symbols to interact with other members of the community. Thus, for Mead, "the self is essentially a social structure and it arises in social experience " (p. 140); therefore, it is impossible to imagine a self emerging outside social interaction. For Mead, communication is very important because the self develops through communication. Communication is a means for the individual to have access to his or her "me" self. By communicating, using language and symbols, the individual can become an object to himself or herself. The communicational process involves two phases: (1) the "conversation of gestures" and (2) language, or the "conversation of significant gestures." Both phases posit a social context within which two or more individuals are in interaction with one

another. In sum, the self emerges out of social interaction that provides a basis for the development of a self.

Goffman (1963), a strict follower of Mead, provided a sociological perspective to the understanding of the notion of identity/self. First, he introduced the idea of virtual vs actual social identity. When we encounter a stranger, we make certain assumptions regarding his or her identity; we try to classify him or her and compare these anticipations with the "normal" norms of the society to determine if this individual is within the normal standards of the group to which we have assigned him or her. This is the *virtual social identity*. The category and attributes the person could in fact be proved to possess will be called the *actual social identity* (p. 2). If the person proves to lack some certain normal attributes that we (as normals) desire him or her to have, then the person becomes less of a "normal" person but more of a stigmatized individual for us. *Personality identity* refers to the "uniqueness" of the individual such as the photographic image of the individual in another's mind, other positive marks (identity pegs), and "the unique combination of life history that comes to be attached to the individuals with the help of these pegs" (p. 57). For Goffman (1963), social identity and personal identity were interwoven, and he saw individuals as forming an idea of the personal identity of a person by assessing his/her social identity or the social group to which the individual was seen to belong.

Mauss (1979), in his seminal work "A category of the human mind," presented a view of the self from an anthropological perspective. He studied how naming rituals helped individuals to establish personhood in some societies.

Individuals were named according to their fixed role or position in the society; thus, names were not necessarily the hallmark of the individual. The name typically represented a membership in a group and a specific position within it, and so individuals might change names within the course of their lives as their positions changed. Mauss in this work demonstrated that conceptions of personhood are dynamic rather than fixed. For him, the conceptions of the person are culturally and historically constituted, and these conceptions are always subject to change.

Fajans (1983) in her anthropological study reported on the view of the development of the person in the Baining (of New Britain, Papua New Guinea). Individuals in this culture view themselves and their experiences in relation to others. A Baining child is not recognized as a person until s/he attains certain social characteristics and behaviors. Similar to Mauss, the Bainings depend on the surrounding and the social circles of their own. Also Fajans, similar to Mauss, summarized her results by saying that behaviors of people or their responses change due to the dynamic range of situations they encounter; therefore, the Baining do not generally categorize people into stereotypical categories.

In conclusion, in the aforementioned studies, researchers concluded that the social structure of the community, the social context individuals live in, and the interaction between the individuals with others in the social context determine the role of the individuals and the identities attached to the individuals. According to Kumaravadivelu (2008), although the individual possesses a significant degree of choice in the construction of his/her self-identity, national, social and local realities can always play a facilitating as well as constricting role. Therefore, in the

investigation of "identity construction" or in the search of "multiple identities" the social, historical, and institutional micro contexts in which interactions take place should be taken into consideration.

Identity in SLA

Although it has a remarkable history, the concept of identity has only recently been introduced to the SLA field. The work of Pierce (1995) has been significant in identity research in the second language acquisition (SLA) domain. Drawing on her research on immigrant women living in Canada, she postulated that social identity is a multilayered construct, and it is subject to change and negotiation and a site of struggle. She introduced the term *investment* instead of *motivation* because for her, the existing concepts of motivation in the field of SLA do not take account of the complex relations of power, identity, and language learning. The term *investment* more accurately embraces the social and historical relationships found in the her participants. Pierce (1995) stated that when learners invest their time and effort in learning a second language, they expect that their efforts will help them gain "wider range of symbolic and material resources, which will in turn increase the value of their cultural capital" (p. 17). Thus, investing in learning the target language is in a way investment in a learner's own social identity that continuously changes across time and space.

Similarly, Firth and Wagner (1997) implicitly underlined the role of identity in SLA as they directed SLA researchers' attention to identity. Researchers in SLA who have investigated identity have usually preferred to take a poststructuralist

approach to investigate the relationship between L2 learning and identity. In this approach, identity is not framed as fixed or stable, but rather it is viewed as fragmented, contested, and dynamic in nature. In other words, when individuals move across geographical and physical borders, or when they are immersed in new socio-cultural environments, their sense of identity becomes unstable. The difference between their existing identity and the demands of the new environment and interactions on the existing identity leads the individual to seek some sort of adjustment. The individual negotiates between what he or she brings from the past and what the current situation presents. Thus, the sense of identity is destabilized and an ever-changing concept (Block, 2007a).

Empirical Research Findings

There have been various identity studies addressing the second/foreign language learners. These studies have investigated the role of English in learners' identity construction, gender differences in identity construction, the role of ethnic identities in learning English, and the role of learners' study abroad experiences on their identity construction. For instance, in a critical ethnographic study of fourteen Malaysian participants, Kim (2003) investigated the relation between the acquisition of English and the construction of sociocultural identities of participants in a multiethnic, multicultural nation, Malaysia. The researcher found that participants frequently and strategically shifted their identities to preserve their acceptance and belonging status to a particular group. In other words, participants possessed a range of identities that shifted depending on the context and the

reference group with which they were interacting. One of the participants, Fazira, reported deliberately choosing not to speak English or sound "Westernized" as she believed others might think she was showing off and she might experience alienation. Azlina, another participant, asserted that English is associated with non-Muslim groups; therefore, she on purpose avoided speaking English when she was with others who would equate speaking English with non-Muslim groups. Overall, the findings affirmed that language has a highly contextual dependence, and interactive contexts determine the variation in selves that individuals display.

Gao (2011), in an ethnographic case study, explored how Chinese learners' identities influenced their English language learning journeys in Britain, how their identities were influenced by the socio- micro -context of a language classroom, and finally how these learners reconstructed their Chinese national identities in this experience. The findings revealed that participants became more aware of the uniqueness of the Chinese culture and the impact of different values on the communication between people from different cultural/national backgrounds. The challenges offered by different attitudes and beliefs in the context of the language classroom enabled these participants to view and re-examine their own attitudes and beliefs/values based on their national identities. Depending on the context and the discourse in which they engaged, the participants experienced identity shifts. The study abroad experience seems to have provided them with an opportunity to reflect on their awareness of values and ways of life in China.

Gender differences in identity and acculturation patterns were the focus of Polat and Mahalingappa (2010)'s study. They investigated the gender differences in

identity and acculturation patterns and L2 accent attainment of 121 middle school Kurdish students. In their quantitative study, they found that girls as a group obtained higher (more native-like) accent ratings than boys. Also, girls and boys significantly differed regarding their identification with the dominant Turkish community, their family, and nonfamily acculturation and integration patterns. Girls reported having more Turkish speaking networks, speaking more Turkish than Kurdish, both outside of and within their families, showing less-strong Kurdish identification patterns and stronger Turkish identification patterns, compared to their male counterparts.

Identity in different venues of language learning has also been of interest to researchers. For instance, Lam (2004) investigated how two Chinese female learners of English developed their identities through an online communication website. These two girls did not feel comfortable in associating themselves with students who are American or who are American-born Chinese. Participating in the chatrooms for communication exchanges afforded the participants the opportunity to develop their new *third-space identities,* drawing on resources related to their Honk-Kong Chinese past and their English-mediated American present. Lam (2004) postulated that when individuals migrate from one geographical or sociocultural context to another, their sense of who they are is transformed and recreated.

In a study of Korean learners of English, Roger (2010) investigated the role of the "ideal second language self" as a motivator in the learning of English as a global language, and how seven highly-proficient Korean users of English viewed their identities in relation to being a global citizen. He also looked at the role of identities

in shaping their past, present, and future language learning motivation. The findings showed that the majority of the participants reported English as being part of their identity. However, desire to become a global citizen or forge a bicultural identity (national versus global identity) was not a universal aspiration for these participants. The ones who had resonated to the concept of "world citizen" having dual national and global identities, believed that knowing English facilitated their ability to travel and live overseas, and connected them to many parts of the world. On the other hand, three of the seven categorically rejected the notion of themselves as world citizens. The findings also suggested that visualizing one's ideal L2 self was not a prominent self-motivational technique among these participants.

The role of language teachers and their identity reconstruction has also been of concern to some researchers. For instance, in a case study of two ESL language instructors, Menard-Warwick (2008) found that both participants defined their cultural identities as split, hybrid, and mixed. They both reported bringing into their classroom their intercultural identities gained through their experience living in the U.S., and through their gained experiences, they were able to address students' linguistic, ideological, and cultural concerns. The classroom provided a social setting in which they could present their intercultural identities. In another study, Kanno and Stuart (2011) investigated how novice language teachers developed their professional identity as language teachers. In this case study of two language teachers, the researchers found that there is an intertwined relationship between novice teachers' identity development and their changing classroom practices. In this study, the practice of teaching shaped novice teachers' identities. And in turn,

this change in their identity affected their practice. This is a good example of how we continuously, as individuals, negotiate our identities and how we change and are changed depending on the social, institutional, or local context. In another study of prospective language teachers, Atay and Ece (2009) investigated whether learning English impacted the construction of the sociocultural identities of Turkish prospective EFL teachers, and how these prospective teachers negotiated their multiple identities in the process of learning English. In-depth qualitative interviews with 34 participants revealed that these participants engaged in multiple identities such as being Turk, Muslim, language learner, and Westerner. Although some of them reported Turkish and Islamic identities as their dominant identities, some others reported their Western identity as dominant along with Turkish and Islamic identities. The participants were aware of the presence of multiple identities, and they privileged Turkish and Islamic identity over their Western identity but they did not view their Western identity as a threat to their national identity.

In conclusion, identity has recently become an interest to SLA researchers. Overall findings reveal that learners hold various identities, and these identities are negotiated, reevaluated, managed, and co-constructed. Because learners as well as language teachers demonstrate identity shifts depending on the context and the social group with which they interact, identity studies that might capture a particular identity construction of a distinct group of language learners in unique settings are needed to obtain a fuller and deeper understanding of the role of identity in L2 acquisition and L2 motivation.

Motivation, Identity and Possible Selves

There is a relationship between the concepts of *motivation* and *identity*. In SLA motivation research, there has been a shift from more cognitive and contextual factors impacting L2 learning to a more situative, psychosocial, and psychodynamic perspective on learning L2. Ushioda (2011) explicitly stated that there has been a shift in focus from identification with external reference groups to desired self-representation linking motivation and identity. Van Lier (2007) suggested that L2 motivation is tied to identity goals that are personally important and valued reflecting how individuals relate themselves to the social world. In addition, Van Lier (2007) argued that when an individual learns a new language, s/he needs to construct new ways of connecting the self to new worlds such as fabricating new identities and new ways of expressing identities. The individual attempts to develop relationships with new people and strives to establish who s/he is and wishes to become. Thus, one way of summarizing the construct is as follows: identities are ways of relating the self to the world, and they are socially forged and negotiated through relations and interactions with other people who are likely to have an impact on one's desire to learn/improve an L2.

Similarly, Norton (1995, 2000) argued that language learning is a social practice that is ultimately tied to social relations of power between speakers. For Norton (1995), investment in the target language is an investment in a learner's social identity, and this identity is subject to constant change across time and space. She studied five immigrant women in Canada for almost 12 months, and investigating the relationship between their language learning attempts/practices,

power relations, and social identity. In this case study, power dynamics in the social relations of the immigrant women showed that identities can become contested, resisted, and denied, thereby indirectly playing a role in L2-learners'/users' degree of motivational investment in the L2 and their participation in the L2 setting as well.

Possible L2 selves represent imagined future representations that may channel motivation. The identities affecting L2 motivation may include current identities and future goals. Although some identities may be relatively stable, others are likely to be constantly constructed, negotiated, and reconstructed through interactions with others and through changing experiences and relations with the social world. Identity perspectives can explain how long-term personal motivational trajectories channeled by possible selves, are shaped by current situated motivational processes and experiences.

Trans-nationality

That there is an ongoing increase in global migration, study-abroad programs, and opportunities for learning a language outside of a traditional classroom in the learner's home country means that there is a need for language researchers to investigate how learners as transnational users learn a second language or improve their L2 proficiency, and how language learning experiences in a transnational space impact their attitudes and identity construction. *Trans-nationals* refer to individuals with a high degree of acculturation in multiple places around the world. Such individuals easily move between nations, cultures, and ethnic groups mainly in terms of outward relations with others (Willis, 2012). For

Louie (2006), *transnationalism* refers to the phenomenon of immigrants maintaining connections to their country of origin and using a dual frame of reference to evaluate their experiences and outcomes in the country in which they have settled. Transnationals see themselves as belonging to a mixture of cultures, as bicultural or multicultural rather than monocultural. In a target language community, the learner is not only responsible for learning the language but also s/he needs to find his or her place in the community. Unspoken rules and boundaries, and the community's perceptions of the learner can influence transnationals' access to the community's language and culture.

Also, transnational learners/users bring their sets of beliefs, values, and norms to the new cultural setting, and via interactions and experiences, they reflect on their own values and beliefs, evaluate and reevaluate their experiences, and finally develop new understandings by internalizing and appropriating, or rejecting, what they encounter. For these users, the shapes of culture are less bounded, more fluid. That is, they are context dependent (Willis, 1992), which enables them to shift perspectives and transform into new selves with ease. The existing literature is limited to immigrant learners and minority learners' acculturation and L2 learning processes, but how transnational individuals view L2 culture and learn a second language is an area that needs further research.

Among the few studies, Rubinstein-A'vila (2007) presented how a female teenage Dominican immigrant's transnational affiliations affected her literacy practices. Although she was eager to learn English and was reading books in English to improve her schooling in the U.S., she sought books that would affirm her

Dominican-ness, her sense of belongingness to Dominican culture. This study shows that the transnational space occupied by individuals is not only a social space mediated by inter-personal relationships but also a symbolic space mediated by cultural productions. Overall, this study illustrated that transnational learners' literacy practices shape and are shaped by their participation both in their communities of origin and in their adopted communities as they fabricate their overlapping identities.

In another study, Lee (2010) studied two Korean mothers' shifts in their identities due to their transnational experience in Hawaii. These two mothers were living in Hawaii in order to provide their children an opportunity to learn English and use English like a native speaker. Lee found that living in Hawaii as transnational mothers enabled them to shift perspectives, and evaluate and reevaluate their positions in society, which in turn helped them develop new understandings. One of them reported that she had developed a more positive self–image of herself because people in Hawaii treated her as a unique individual. The other announced that she became aware of her "true self". In Korea, she was labeled as a "loyal and submissive daughter-in-law" (p. 260), and felt she needed to fulfill this expectation, but in Hawaii she did not feel that pressure in the transnational space she occupied. She emphasized how this experience of herself in a transnational space helped her see her new "true self". In summary, transnational learners, who would leave their country of origin and move to another country in order to gain educational, social, and economic opportunities and privileges, bring social and psychological baggage along with them that in turn, influence their

transnational identity construction, learning of the language of the settlement, and their motivational behaviors.

Conclusion

In summary, the theories and empirical findings on language learners' temporal distance to L2 related goals, the extent to which they value these L2 related goals, their future projections of themselves as L2 users, the ideal, ought-to, and feared L2 future selves, they establish for themselves, and the multiple L2 identities they negotiate, reconstruct, and co-construct in a transnational space are likely to have an impact on their motivation to learn an L2 and/or improve their current proficiency level. Therefore, each of these constructs had an integral relation to motivation, L2 learning, and L2 acquisition.

Chapter 3
Methods

Rationale

The overarching question this study addressed was the extent to which L2 users' future, in particular their L2-related goals and future projections, played a role in their current motivation to learn or improve their English. The frameworks the study used were the theories of future time perspective and possible selves. The existing research illustrates that learners' temporal (psychological) distance to future goals influences their current motivation but this work has not included a focus on language learning. In addition, previous research on future possible selves has suggested that selves in the future, positive or negative, can have an impact on a learner's motivation. Taking the existing literature as a basis, the main hypothesis in this study was that future time perspective (e.g., the psychological distance that an individual perceives to future goals), and possible selves constructs (e.g., ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and feared L2 self) would be useful in understanding Turkish university-level learners' motivation to learn English. The study used quantitative and qualitative methodology to explore the research questions.

Future time perspective is operationalized as the following, "cognitive and dynamic distance of the learners to their future goals", and it is made up of two aspects. The *cognitive aspect* refers to "the disposition to grasp the long term consequences of actual behavior" (De Volder & Lens, 1982, p. 567). *The dynamic aspect* refers to "the disposition to ascribe high valence to goals in the distant future" (De Volder & Lens, 1982, p. 567). L2 possible selves were operationalized as individuals' ideas of what L2-specific facet they would like to become/achieve (ideal

L2 self), what they think as necessary to realize to meet the expectations of worthy others (ought-to L2 self), and what attributes and characteristics they are afraid of acquiring in relation to language learning (feared L2 self).

Research questions

The research questions included:

1. (a) What is the role of future time perspectives and L2 motivational self system, instrumental motivation, and attitudes toward the L2 community for Turkish graduate students in learning and/or improving their English?

(b) What is the role of future time perspectives and L2 motivational self system, instrumental motivation, and attitudes toward the L2 community in predicting Turkish graduate students' national and oriented identities*?*

2. (a) Which of the aforementioned constructs (FTP and L2 motivational self system) are better predictors of Turkish graduate level learners' motivation to learn English?

(b) Which of the aforementioned constructs (FTP and L2 motivational self system) are better predictors of Turkish graduate level learners' identification with the target community or with their own community?

3. Does adding a measure of feared L2 possible self add significantly to the prediction of motivation over and beyond the ideal-self and ought-to self constructs?

4. (a) How do Turkish college learners' projections of themselves as future English users contribute to their present motivation to learn English or improve their current English proficiency level?

(b) How does living in the target community affect Turkish college learners' sense of selves? What identities do they enact or adopt?

In order to address these research questions, I undertook took study in several phases.

Phase 1:

Once IRB approval had been obtained (03/07/ 2012), I began data collection for generating the feared L2 self scale, Phase 1. This phase began in June 2012 and lasted for three weeks. In order to elicit possible items to measure the feared L2 self and generate items for the scale, I interviewed 23 participants and asked them to report possible negative attributes or characteristics related to language learning (learning English) with which they did not want themselves to be associated (See Appendix A for these questions). These 23 individuals were similar to the target group in that they were all of Turkish origin now studying in the United States. In order to generate items for measuring the feared L2 self, I conducted interviews with eleven ESL students, seven graduate students, three undergraduate students, and two visiting scholars who were studying at the University of Texas at Austin at the time. Among the 23 interviewees, 14 were male and 9 were female. Their ages ranged from 19 to 36.

The interviews were conducted in Turkish. Their responses were first transcribed and compared, and then analyzed, coded, and grouped according to content by two expert raters. Drawing from these data, I created items to measure the feared L2 self and added them to Dornyei's L2 self questionnaire (See Appendix B for the list of feared L2 self scale items).

Phase 2:

Next, in order to validate the feared L2 self scale and as well as the adapted version of Dornyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system and Husman and Shell's (2008) inventory, The Life Events Inventory, I administered the full extended survey to 56 language learners who were at the time learning English as a second language in the same university as the Phase 1 participants. The pilot study with ESL learners, Phase 2, began in October, 2012 and lasted through November, 2012. The survey was distributed to Phase 2 participants electronically via Qualtrics, a survey website. I invited potential participants via internal messaging system used by the ESL program in which they were registered at the time of the study. A total of 108 participants started the survey but only 52 of them competed more than 70 % of the survey; thus, for the reliability analysis of the scales, I used only the responses of these 52 participants. The participants were from various countries (Central Africa, n= 1; China, n= 12; Columbia, n= 3; Japan, n= 8; Mexico, n= 1; Saudi Arabia, n= 8; South Korea, n= 4; Taiwan, n= 4; Turkey, n= 8; Vietnam, n= 1) with varying age ranges (18 to 43).

Measures

The measures for Phase 2 included several scales that had been developed by other researchers as well as the new feared L2 self scale I had developed from Phase 1 data. These included an adapted version of Dornyei's L2 Motivational Self System questionnaire (Dornyei, 2009), the future time perspective scale (Husman & Shell, 2008), and my feared L2 self scale.

Motivated Learning Behavior: Based on Dornyei's (2009) framework, learners' motivated learning behavior was operationalized as persistence to learn/improve English, intention to improve their current proficiency level in English, and effort spent and activities carried out to improve their current level of English (E.g., "If an English course is offered at my university in the future, I would liked to enroll in this course if possible"). The scale was adapted from Dornyei's L2 Motivational Self System questionnaire (Dornyei, 2009). This scale consisted of 10 items. The participants responded to these items on a 7 point Likert scale with 1 being "not at all true of me" and 7 being "very true of me". In Taguchi et al.'s reported data, the measure was highly reliable (α= .83) (See Appendix C, Part A for a list of the items).

(Future) Possible selves: Dornyei (2009) also developed sub-scales of the L2 motivational self system scale to investigate whether the future selves learners create for themselves play a role in motivating language learners. These sub-components measured the ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self. For my study, I adapted

a version of Dornyei's L2 self questionnaire to elicit information on participants' L2 self (See Appendix C, Part B). The ideal L2 self scale consisted of 8 items (e.g., I can imagine myself speaking English well) (See Appendix C, Part B). The ought-to self subscale has 9 items (e.g., Learning English is important because people surrounding me expect me to do so). These subscales had reliabilities on the original Taguchi et al (2009)'s report of .89 and .76.

Feared L2 self measure: The third component, the feared L2 self, consisted of 14 items (e.g., "I am worried that using English too much during my stay in the US. can make me forget my mother tongue") (See Appendix C, Part B). In total, the L2 Future possible self scale now consisted of three subscales consisting of 31 items.

Attitudes Toward the L2 Community and Attitudes Toward the L2: The third measure addressed participants' attitudes toward the L2 community and their attitudes toward English, and whether these variables played a part in their motivation to learn English. These scales also were derived from Dornyei's (2009) scale. The scale that measured "attitudes toward L2 community" had 7 items (e.g., "I like the people of the United States") with an original published reliability of α= .86 . The last subscale consisted of 6 items, with a reported reliability of α=.90 (see Appendix C, Part C).

Instrumental motivation: The instrumental motivation scale measured whether participants are motivated to learn/improve English in order to gain tangible advantages or benefits, such as earning a higher salary as a result of

knowing English. The instrumental motivation subscale consisted of 8 items (e.g., "I study English because it will some day be useful in getting a job"). Dornyei (2009) reported a reliability of α= .82.

Future time perspective: The future time perspective measure addressed the type of instrumentality (proximal versus distal), and utility value of exerting effort for the future for the participants. Learners' extension into the future and their general conceptions of instrumentality and valance were measured by an adapted version of Husman and Shell's (2008) inventory, *The Life Events Inventory.* The scale measures four constructs within a future time perspective: extension, connectedness, speed, and valance (Husman & Shell, 2008). The published reliabilities of the subscales were α= .70, α= .88 α= .64, and α= .83 respectively. (see Appendix C, Part D).

Identity measure: The fifth section of the survey measured participants' perceptions of their national and international identities, how they positioned themselves as an L2 user in various social and academic contexts, and whether this played a role in their L2 future selves construction and on their temporal distance to their L2 related goals (e.g. "Learning English has changed me. I feel I am not only a citizen of my country but also a more global person"). The scale had 18 items that I had developed based on my general reading of the literature as well as on the responses of Phase 1 participants. One example is "*I worry that my friends and colleagues think I am less a good representative of my country if I switch between my*

native language and English in the same utterance or conversation." (see Appendix C, Part E).

Demographic information: The last part, the demographic information section, collected data on participants' educational background (department, degree being sought), age, gender, marital status (if married, the spouse's nationality, spouse's native language, number of children), years of language instruction prior to current experience, current proficiency level, the amount of interaction (hours and milieu) with English speakers on a weekly basis, the expected GPA/grade letter or TOEFL score, and intentions about remaining in the U.S. or any other English speaking country (see Appendix C, Part F). The survey was distributed electronically.

The reliability of the survey was measured using Cronbach's alpha. The items that decreased the reliability of the survey were removed. Due to the limited number of participants (only 52 responded to 70 % of the scale), I could not use factor analysis. However, I looked at the reliability of each scale in order to see if items had internal consistency, that is, if they showed some sort of grouping as I had hypothesized. The Cronbach's alpha values for each scale showed evidence that the items in the scales were measuring an underlying construct. The motivated learning behavior scale had $\alpha = .78$ which is an acceptable level of internal consistency. The scales for possible selves constructs, ideal L2 self and ought to L2 self construct, had $\alpha = .82$ and $\alpha = .79$ internal consistency respectively. The attitude scales, including attitude toward the L2 community, L2 learning experience, and instrumental

motivation scales, had α=.91 which is considered a very high internal consistency. The future time perspective scale had four sub-constructs, value, connectedness, extension, and speed. As a result of reliability analysis, eight items representing extension and speed were eliminated as they were identified as items lowering the reliability. The final FTP scale had 18 items with a reliability of α=.82. Finally, the Cronbach's alpha for the identity scale was α=.78 which is also regarded as acceptable in the existing literature. Although the primary purpose of this stage was to analyze the survey for validation and reliability purposes, unfortunately I could not do more than these internal tests of consistency as I had only 52 ESL participants, most of whom only responded to not much more than 70% of the survey. In order not to misguide and cause misconceptions regarding the constructs being studied, I decided to keep most of the items on the scales from the original published versions.

Phase 3

After settling on the final version of the survey, I began the task of translating the survey into Turkish, using a forward-backward translation methodology in order to elicit more accurate responses from participants who may be less proficient in English. The survey was first translated into Turkish by an advanced speaker of English who is a faculty in an elite university in Turkey (see Appendix D for survey questions in Turkish). Then, the survey that had been translated into Turkish was back-translated into English by a translator/interpreter who holds a PhD degree in English-Turkish/Turkish-English translation. Later, I and one native

speaker of English compared the surveys. Also, the interviews were carried out in the language the participants preferred, either English or Turkish, in order to provide more comfort to the participants. The extended survey then was ready to be administered to Turkish college learners of English in Phase 3.

Participants: In this phase, 299 Turkish graduate level learners of English from different proficiency levels who were and will be studying in US colleges/universities participated in the study. As the data were gathered through an online survey, more than 700 individuals began the survey but not all completed it. In the end, 299 students provided full responses, with the percentage of men (54.5%) being slightly higher than women (45.1 %) (135 female, 163 male). Ages of the participants ranged from 18 to 46 with a mean of 26.6. Almost all, 95.9 % of the participants were Turkish in ethnicity (287 out of 299); however, participants from other ethnic backgrounds (e.g., Kurdish, Turkmen) who also speak Turkish fluently (2.6 % Kurdish N=8; 0.3 % Turkmen N=1), and participants who were born in the U.S., or Canada and holding dual citizenship also participated (American-Turkish N=1; Canadian N=1) in the study. Almost all, 96.6 % of the participants (N=287) reported their native language as Turkish, with only 3.3 % of the participants reporting their mother tongue as not Turkish. As for the knowledge of English, the participants represented low, medium, high, and advanced levels in English. Among all participants, 25.7 % (N=77) preferred not to report their TOEFL or equivalent test proficiency scores. Based on the TOEFL or equivalent test proficiency scores of the 222 participants who responded to this question, 7.2 % reported as having a

TOEFL IBT score (or equivalent) between 30 and 65, which is categorized as lower level proficiency. A total of 87 participants, 39.1 % of the sample, reported having a TOEFL IBT score (or equivalent) between 66 and 85, and 75 (33.7 %) reported TOEFL IBT scores between 86 and 100, categorized as highly proficient learners. Only 19.8 % of the participants who responded to this question (N=44) were recognized as advanced learners due to the fact that their TOEFL IBT score (or equivalent) was between 101 and 120 (Low N= 16; Mid N=87; High N=75; Advanced N=44). The participants had varying career paths. For instance, among the 299 participants, 2 were seeking a post-doc degree; 92 were pursuing a doctoral degree; 160 were in MA/MS programs', and 8 of them were studying in undergraduate programs. Among the 268 participants who reported their department, 59.3 % were studying in degree programs in the natural sciences, and 40.6 % were studying in degree programs in the social sciences (i.e., education, law, psychology).

Although there was no demographic information regarding the economic background of the participants, they are assumed to be from economically diverse families. They are also assumed to have learned English as a foreign language with limited classroom exposure. This target group was chosen purposefully because, first, they share common similarities such as studying at elite American universities, studying for a future career, and coming from a similar home culture. These similarities helped me to find patterns among the individuals with respect to the phenomena being investigated. On the other hand, these participants also held certain individual, local, contextual, and academic differences that were also reflected in the results. These differences helped me to develop an understanding of

their motivation. The choice of Turkish learners was also intentional because I share with them similar social, educational, and cultural backgrounds, and relatively similar academic goals. This helped me to understand better their needs and perspectives, develop rapport, and create opportunities for reciprocity as well. Also, with respect to practicality, considering the differing proficiency levels of the participants, I anticipated that the participants would feel more comfortable if it were possible to use their native language during data collection; therefore, to elicit appropriate and more accurate data from the target group, it was better for me to share the participants' language and the culture. This is why this group was appropriate for the purpose of this study.

The participants were a proper sample to investigate the aforementioned constructs as they were expected to communicate in oral and written modes in English for academic purposes due to the nature of the instruction and structure of U.S. universities. Moreover, the participants represented various disciplines; thus, it was assumed that they were expected to use English for communication in social and academic contexts within their current local context in their respective departments due to the limited number of individuals who could communicate in Turkish.

The data were collected using an online survey website from November 18, 2012 to December 18, 2012. A total of 619 participants began the Turkish version of the survey, and 119 participants responded to the English version of the survey. Due to the amount of missing data for some of the participants, such as not providing any demographic information, or the status of some of the participants (e.g., holding a

faculty position and therefore not a student, or studying in England or Europe, not in the U.S., I eliminated 449 records. In the end, I used 299 participants who responded to 99% of the survey questions and who met the criteria for participation in this study. In order to reach potential participants, I used various online venues, including social networking websites, and student association websites in several U.S. universities.

Data Analysis: Having collecting the data from the target population, I was ready to conduct a factor analysis and reliability analysis to check the internal consistency of the items in the scales because I now had enough participants.

For the factor analysis, my first step was to use an exploratory factor analysis on the feared L2 self scale items that had been derived from the interview data in Phase 1and had not been validated before. The scale had a total of 14 items. The results of a principal component factor analysis yielded three components.

Barlett's test of sphericity was significant, thus the hypothesis that the intercorrelation matrix involving these 14 variables (items) is an identity matrix was rejected. Thus, from the perspective of Bartlett's test, factor analysis was warranted. As Barlett's test is almost always significant, a more discriminating index of factor analyzability is the KMO. For this data set, KMO was .859, which is substantially large, so the KMO also supported the factor analysis.

Due to having lower loadings and loading on two different factors, item 30 (I will feel ashamed if people correct my pronunciation in my native language when I

go back to my country) was deleted from the variable list. After taking out item 30, the KMO still remained high (KMO=.856). Kaiser's rule for retaining factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 was used in the analysis as the default. As the eigenvalues for the three principal components were 4.156, 1.698, 1.056, all three were retained.

Next, an exploratory factor analysis was performed for all possible selves items. There were a total of 30 items on the full survey to measure ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and feared L2 self. At first, six principal components were extracted. The eigenvalues for the six principal components were 6.21, 4.82, 3.23, 1.38, 1.13, 1.01, and the KMO was .851.

Item 31 "I am worried that if I do not use English effectively and express my ideas accurately, I will misrepresent my country and my people", item 13 "Not using English effectively can have a negative impact on my social life", item 14 "Not using English effectively can have a negative impact on my academic life", item 15 "Not using English effectively can have a negative impact on my future career plans", and item 23 "I worry that when I speak English fluently people might think I am showing off" were taken out because they showed multiple loadings, or there needed to be at least three items to stand alone as a factor. As a result of eliminating the double loading items, the possible selves scale was reduced to three factors: factor 1 (ideal L2 self, items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8), factor 2 (ought-to L2 self, items 9, 10, 11, 12, 16, 17, 21, 22), and factor 3 (feared L2 self, items 18, 20, 24, 26, 27, 28, 29). Note that items 21 and 22 had emerged as third factor in the feared L2 self scale exploratory

analysis but here, these items loaded on the ought-to L2 self factor when I ran the factor analysis for all possible selves items.

As for the final step for validating the extended survey, I ran a factor analysis for all the items on the complete survey, and after eliminating the items that had low loadings or items that had equal loadings on more than one factor, there were 12 factors: motivated learning behavior, language learning anxiety, instrumental motivation, attitude toward the target community, L2 learning experience, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, feared L2 self, future time perspective value, future time perspective connectedness, national identity, and oriented identity (See table 3.1 for Factor Loadings).

After the factor analysis, I ran a second round of reliability analyses to identity the internal consistency of the remaining final items and scales. The scales had all acceptable or good Cronbach's alpha values. Motivated learning behavior, attitudes toward the target community, future time perspective value, and connectedness had acceptable levels of internal consistency, α=.75, α=.70, α=.73, and α=.79 respectively. The possible selves constructs, namely ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and feared L2 self, showed good to very good internal consistency values, α=.90, α=.87, and α=.84, respectively. Items on the instrumental motivation scale and items on the L2 experience scale also had high internal consistency values, α=.88 and α=.89. As for the identity scale, as mentioned above due to factor analysis findings, the items in the identity scale loaded on two factors, one of which was about how the individuals had acculturated into the target community (called *oriented identity*) and the other seemed related to the extent to which the individual

felt threatened as a result of living in the target community (called *national identity*). The items on the national identity scale had a Cronbach's alpha level of .80, and the items on the oriented identity scale had a Cronbach's alpha level of .84.

Table 1 *Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis With Varimax Rotation of Motivation, L2 selves and Future Time Perspective*

	Ideal L2 Self	Ought-to L2 Self	Feared L2 Self	Instrumental motivation	L2 experience	National Identity	Oriented Identity	Future Time Perspective Value	Motivated Learning Behavior	Future Time Perspective Connectedness	Attitudes Toward Target Community
	0.772	0.085	-0.055	0.047	0.213	-0.093	0.078	0.096	0.101	0.026	0.12
IS3	**0.77**	-0.021	-0.065	0.145	0.033	-0.012	0.165	0.143	0.044	-0.062	-0.019
IS8	**0.765**	-0.032	-0.046	0.131	0.168	-0.104	0.107	-0.028	-0.031	0.073	0.063
IS4	**0.746**	0.121	-0.004	0.07	0.13	-0.088	0.153	0.131	-0.037	-0.12	-0.017
IS2	**0.717**	0.108	-0.017	0.245	0.097	-0.063	0.192	0.19	0.05	0.029	-0.071
IS6	**0.662**	0.072	0.001	0.385	0.171	-0.068	0.11	0.133	0.156	0.021	0.029
IS5	**0.642**	0.102	0.029	0.043	-0.026	0.018	0.043	-0.009	0.317	0.179	0.193
OS17	0.067	**0.771**	0.057	0.176	0.075	0.159	0.007	0.019	-0.102	0.031	-0.096
OS11	0.047	**0.693**	-0.013	0.157	0.123	0.024	-0.107	0.052	0.1	0.165	0.134
OS12	0.062	**0.66**	0.069	0.266	0.02	0.141	0.097	0.061	0.173	0.098	0.12
OS22	0.235	**0.653**	0.044	0.244	0.132	0.179	0.068	0.119	-0.026	0.054	0.076
OS16	0.145	**0.646**	0.205	0.055	0.011	-0.097	0.138	-0.075	-0.003	0.038	-0.025
OS21	0.003	**0.645**	0.124	0.231	-0.111	-0.037	0.14	-0.004	0.025	0.074	0.025
OS10	-0.03	**0.591**	0.063	0.226	-0.165	-0.048	0.06	0.064	0.282	0.024	0.114
OS9	-0.075	**0.575**	0.052	0.289	-0.057	-0.022	0.051	-0.013	0.081	0.103	0.296
FS27	-0.054	0.044	**0.815**	0.047	0.011	0.104	0.012	-0.02	-0.003	-0.019	-0.014
FS18	0.065	-0.005	**0.782**	-0.096	0	0.261	0.063	-0.083	0.028	-0.036	-0.054
FS26	-0.053	0.051	**0.761**	-0.062	0.051	0.195	0.04	0.017	-0.163	-0.114	-0.027
FS20	-0.055	0.028	**0.756**	-0.042	0.011	0.177	-0.013	-0.06	0.026	0.003	0.056
FS28	0.013	0.123	**0.708**	0.179	-0.064	0.053	0.072	-0.041	-0.012	0.006	-0.093
FS24	-0.034	0.11	**0.613**	0.059	-0.142	0.123	-0.123	-0.146	0.126	0.034	0.228
FS29	-0.035	0.06	**0.5**	-0.056	0.005	0.063	0.086	-0.038	-0.134	0.137	-0.114

Table 1 (cont.)

INST1	0.151	0.221	-0.007	**0.826**	0.076	0.036	0.072	0.186	0.063	0.083	-0.012
INST8	0.166	0.254	0.015	**0.797**	0.011	-0.05	0.061	0.022	0.166	0.05	0.068
INST2	0.271	0.263	0.02	**0.742**	0.058	-0.182	0.044	-0.061	-0.01	0.025	0.135
INST3	0.084	0.293	0.051	**0.711**	0.146	0.026	0.051	0.073	0.124	0.122	0.088
INST4	0.186	0.308	0.007	**0.692**	0.094	-0.05	0.085	0.167	0.034	0.163	0.139
INST5	0.366	0.208	-0.155	**0.443**	-0.015	-0.132	0.162	0.143	0.031	-0.09	0.077
L2E18	0.106	-0.007	0.008	0.065	**0.857**	0.017	0.068	0.014	0.228	0.009	0.13
L2E16	0.177	-0.057	0.01	0.097	**0.819**	-0.025	0.129	0.104	0.055	0.012	0.038
L2E20	0.057	0.04	-0.048	0.052	**0.776**	0.013	0.17	0.059	0.067	0.036	0.047
L2E17	0.166	0.157	-0.088	0.043	**0.775**	0.03	0.113	-0.018	0.157	0.069	0.121
L2E21	0.119	-0.056	0.054	0.066	**0.657**	0.093	0.151	0.031	0.142	-0.044	0.163
NID2	-0.03	0.036	0.191	-0.069	0.034	**0.841**	0.026	-0.095	0.09	0.048	0.104
NID3	-0.082	0.064	0.293	-0.041	0.037	**0.82**	-0.029	-0.112	0.027	0.057	0.043
NID7	0.088	0.036	-0.27	0.047	-0.034	**-0.705**	-0.063	0.103	0.045	-0.076	0.073
NID18	0.078	-0.03	-0.416	0.011	-0.096	**-0.654**	-0.102	0.198	-0.015	-0.006	-0.109
NID11	0.126	-0.13	-0.094	0.065	0.054	**-0.645**	-0.178	0.043	0.024	-0.012	-0.047
ORID1	0.126	0.027	0.05	0.034	0.132	0.047	**0.788**	0.033	0.049	0.056	0.134
ORID6	0.098	-0.002	0.024	0.131	0.051	0.208	**0.763**	0.001	-0.028	0.08	-0.021
ORID13	0.152	0.152	0.006	0.084	0.092	0.146	**0.743**	0.081	-0.018	0.011	0.02
ORID5	0.128	-0.064	0.051	-0.006	0.132	0.074	**0.738**	-0.004	0.046	0.017	0.09
ORID9	0.197	0.177	0.068	0.049	0.226	-0.162	**0.622**	0.038	0.041	0.038	0.136
ORID16	0.254	0.299	-0.01	0.334	0.165	-0.187	**0.433**	0.004	0.035	0.116	0.123
FTPV13	-0.063	0.001	-0.126	0.028	0.022	-0.032	0.072	**0.777**	-0.036	0.062	-0.058
FTPV7	0.204	0.081	0.029	0.083	0.018	-0.151	0.015	**0.734**	0.09	0.211	0.001
FTPV14	0.183	-0.013	-0.09	0.154	0.081	-0.08	-0.057	**0.714**	0.035	0.086	0.092
FTPV8	-0.057	0.102	-0.092	0.172	0.05	0.082	-0.016	**0.688**	-0.093	-0.08	-0.066
FTPV11	0.193	-0.007	-0.037	-0.019	-0.009	-0.173	0.047	**0.623**	0.107	0.037	0.107

Table 1 (cont.)

FTPV12	0.29	0.002	-0.045	-0.07	0.055	-0.266	0.126	**0.606**	0.2	0.077	0.159
MLB8	0.017	0.027	0.008	0.132	0.091	0.03	-0.016	-0.004	**0.71**	0.042	0.02
MLB4	0.097	-0.038	-0.048	0.158	0.131	-0.078	0.081	0.111	**0.684**	0.049	-0.121
MLB9	0.063	0.12	-0.021	0.056	0.138	0.223	-0.029	0.019	**0.626**	0.107	0.151
MLB3	0.142	0.174	-0.103	-0.034	0.322	0.009	0.025	0.039	**0.624**	-0.028	-0.099
MLB5	0.154	0.144	-0.034	0.013	0.314	-0.056	-0.059	-0.063	**0.524**	-0.106	0.003
MLB6	0.165	0.138	-0.064	0.039	0.21	-0.06	0.171	0.19	**0.416**	-0.066	-0.041
FTPC3	0.059	0.058	-0.011	0.065	0.003	-0.011	0.068	-0.004	0.115	**0.758**	0.119
FTPC1	-0.048	0.101	-0.019	0.117	-0.141	0.035	0.064	0.118	0.118	**0.734**	0.128
FTPC6	0.048	0.07	-0.042	0.084	0.095	0.188	0	0.042	-0.115	**0.697**	-0.112
FTPC5	-0.015	0.159	0.075	0.029	0.088	-0.017	0.061	0.136	-0.028	**0.667**	-0.103
ATTC10	0.158	0.109	-0.034	0.096	0.294	0.005	0.077	0.076	-0.092	-0.004	**0.766**
ATTC11	0.135	0.172	-0.025	0.161	0.208	0.027	0.208	0.029	-0.101	-0.032	**0.743**
ATTC15	0.032	0.119	-0.052	0.167	0.105	0.293	0.183	0.061	0.14	0.07	**0.546**

Note: Factor loadings>.40 are in boldface. IS= Ideal L2 Scale; OS= Ought-to L2 self scale; FS= Feared L2 self scale; INST= Instrumental motivation scale; L2E= L2 learning Experience scale; NID= National identity scale; ORID= Oriented identity scale; FTPV= Future time perspective value scale; FTPC= Future time perspective connectedness scale; MLB= Motivated Learning behavior scale; ATTC= Attitudes toward target community scale.

Data Analysis Procedures

In this study many of the background variables, such as the language spoken at home, number of children, marital status of the participant, years of English instruction in the home country, etc., were not included in the main path analyses due to the fact that the sample size was not large enough for such a complex model.

As the first analysis, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to find underlying factors that represented the future/possible selves, in particular the feared L2 self.

Next, independent t-tests were used to explore whether there were gender differences in motivated learning behavior, possible selves, identity construction, or the attitudes of the learners. The results showed that there were no gender differences in any of the variables of interest.

Third, descriptive statistics and correlations between main variables were performed. After that the main analysis using Path analysis were used to examine the causal relationships between variables.

Path analysis is a technique that is used to estimate true relations among observed variables using a covariance matrix. A covariance matric includes correlations among the observed variables (Kline, 2005). Correlation entails both direct relation between observed variables and spurious associations due to common cause. Therefore, the main purpose of the path analysis is to estimate true as well as spurious relationships between observed variables simultaneously. A path model is evaluated based on how well the observed correlations or covariances are accounted for by the path model. Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation is used

to estimate the coefficients (Kline, 2005). The assumptions of ML that must be met include: independence of the observations, multivariate normality of the endogenous variables, independence of exogenous variables and disturbances, as well as the correct specification of the model (Kline, 2005).

Keith (2006) proposed that there are four steps in path analysis: (1) develop a model, (2) check identification of the model, (3) measure the variables in the model, and (4) estimate the model. At the first step, while developing the model, theory and existing literature should be considered. In the second step, a covariance matrix should be developed from the raw data. The goodness of fit given the data was tested by chi-square test statistic to determine whether the hypothesized model was plausible. However, due to sensitivity of chi-square statistics to sample size, other fit indices, such as Comparative Fit Index (CFI) ≥.95, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) ≤.10, or Root Mean Square of Error Approximation (RMSEA) ≤.06 were examined based on Hu and Bentler (1999) recommendations. Whenever the goodness of fit of the model did not fit the data perfectly, I made respecifications in the initial path model to improve the goodness of fit. These respecifications were based on both empirical indices and theoretical rationale. The Lagrange Multiplier (LM) test was used to add the paths. The modification index (MI) values were considered before adding the paths, but also as Kline (2005) recommended, I also considered, whether adding a particular path was theoretically meaningful and statistically significant. The LM value estimates the amount of decrease in the overall χ^2 when the particular fixed-to-zero path is freely estimated. The greater the MI value, the more the model fit is improved when the path is added

to the model. Each path addition was checked one by one to see whether χ^2 dropped significantly.

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), which is considered a synthesis of path analysis and confirmatory factor analysis, has recently become a popular technique to analyze multivariate causal relations of latent variables. Therefore, path analysis is sometimes viewed as less compelling compared to SEM (Kline, 2005), However, Kline (2005) argued that this approach is mistaken because by design or default, and due to resource limitations, sometimes single indicators of variables are used. Also MacCallum and Austin (2000) reported that 25 % of the studies in 16 psychology journals in 1990s published studies using path analysis. The reason I used path analysis rather than SEM in this study was because I had a limited number of participants compared to the parameters I wanted to estimate in the proposed model.

Finally, a hierarchically ordered regression analysis was used to investigate how participants' future projections of themselves and their future perspectives as well as their attitudes towards English and the L2 community influenced their intention to learn/improve English and their sense of self as L2 users. For all analyses, the significance level was set at alpha=05. Discussions of these specific procedures are described in the next chapter.

Phase 4

The last phase constituted the qualitative part of the study. In this final stage, to validate the findings and explore the results in more depth, I used 45- minute

long, semi-structured interviews with 10 theoretically chosen participants who had completed the survey in Phase 3. Five participants were chosen who had scored highest in feared L2 self and another five who had scored lowest in feared L2 self. I used a semi-structured interview to ensure that all participants were asked the same main questions, but also that was enough flexibility to allow me to pursue unexpected responses. Thus, the flexibility could allow me to explore individual differences (as well as cultural, or language specific differences) in learners' construction of their L2 possible self, their perceptions of temporal distance to future goals, and other relevant issues (see Appendix E for sample interview questions).

Interviews were recorded via digital voice recorder and a computer program. Having transcribed the recordings, I coded the transcripts for themes/main points. The qualitative data were analyzed using constant comparison method (Glaser & Strauss, 1985). In the first stage, I compared the incidents and stories that the participants told me during the interview. Later, based on comparison data, categories were integrated. Later, I grouped the categories under larger categories. Finally, the categories and relationships relevant to the participants were combined to create a general picture of how possible selves, identity, and second/foreign language learning motivation interact, which enabled me to develop an understanding of the phenomenon. In order to address the criteria of credibility, peer-debriefing technique were used.

Chapter 4

The purpose of this study was to contribute to a better understanding of how future time perspective, future possible selves, and attitudes towards English-speaking communities and English in international students, in particular Turkish-origin students earning degrees in the U.S. universities, play a role in these learners' motivation to learn English and the role of these variables in their identification with the target community and culture as well as their own culture and nationality. More specifically, the major purpose of this study was to explore how these learners' future orientations and their projections of themselves as L2 users impacted their identification and their motivation to learn/improve their English.

This chapter begins with preliminary analyses aimed at providing information on gender differences, descriptive statistics, and the correlation among main variables. Next, I will discuss the results of the main analyses, testing proposed path models to validate whether the posited structural models are plausible enough to interpret the relationships between the variables. Next, I report on hierarchical regression analyses to confirm the path analyses findings. The last section presents results from a qualitative analysis of interview data.

PRELIMINARY ANALYSES

Descriptive statistics and correlations among main variables

First, as shown in Table 1, motivated learning behavior was significantly and positively correlated with ought-to L2 self, ideal L2 self, instrumental motivation, attitude toward the L2 community and language, future time perspective value and

connectedness, and oriented identity. However, it was not significantly correlated with feared L2 self and national identity.

As for the possible selves constructs, the correlation between these and other variables showed variation. For instance, the ideal L2 self was positively and significantly correlated with the ought-to L2 self, instrumental motivation, attitudes toward the L2 community, and L2 experience, future time perspective connectedness, and two of the criterion variables, namely motivated learning behavior and oriented identity. However, it was not correlated at all with feared L2 self, future time perspective value, and national identity. Scores on the ought-to L2 self scale, on the other hand, were positively and significantly correlated with all variables except for future time perspective connectedness and national identity. The variable that had the least number of correlation with other variables was the feared L2 self. It was significantly and positively correlated with ought-to L2 self, and significantly and negatively correlated with future time perspective connectedness and national identity.

Third, the association between instrumental motivation and motivated learning behavior, the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, the L2 learning experience, attitudes towards the target community, both future time constructs, and oriented identity were statistically significant. On the other hand, instrumental motivation did not significantly correlate with feared L2 self and national identity.

Fourth, the L2 learning experience was positively and significantly correlated with ought-to L2 self, the ideal L2 self, instrumental motivation, attitudes towards the L2 community, future time perspective constructs, oriented identity, and

motivated learning behavior. It was not significantly related to the feared L2 self and national identity.

Fifth, the variable of attitudes toward the target language community was positively and significantly related with motivated learning behavior, the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, instrumental motivation, the L2 learning experience, future time perspective (both value and connectedness), and oriented identity. It was not significantly correlated with the feared L2 self and national identity.

Sixth, the value construct of future time perspective was significantly correlated with motivated learning behavior, the ought to L2 self, instrumental motivation, attitudes toward L2 community, and the L2 learning experience, future time perspective connectedness, and oriented identity. However, it was not significantly correlated with feared L2 self and the national identity.

Seventh, the connectedness aspect of future time perspective was significantly positively correlated with motivated learning behavior, the ideal L2 self, instrumental motivation, attitudes towards L2 community, attitudes toward L2, the value aspect of future time perspective, and oriented identity. Also, it was significantly but negatively correlated with the feared L2 self. However, it was not significantly correlated with the ought-to L2 self and national identity.

National identity, similar to feared L2 self, had relatively fewer associations with the other variables. It was only negatively and significantly correlated with the feared L2 self, and oriented identity. By comparison, oriented identity was significantly and positively correlated with motivated learning behavior , the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, instrumental motivation, the L2 learning experience,

attitudes toward target community, future time perspective value, and connectedness. It was significantly but negatively correlated with national identity. But it was not significantly correlated with motivated learning behavior.

Table 2 Bivariate Correlations between Variables

	M	Std	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.Motivated Learning Behavior	4.95	1.08										
2.Ideal L2 Self	5.69	1.11	.311**									
3.Ought-to L2 self	4.11	1.47	.235**	.184**								
4.Feared L2 self	2.5	1.28	-.074	-.033	.148*							
5.Instrumental Mot.	5.57	1.26	.273**	.416**	.527**	-.018						
6.L2 learning experience	4.74	1.46	.451**	.424**	.130*	-.035	.303**					
7.Attitude twrd Community	4.89	1.31	.135*	.352**	.289**	-.028	.403**	.424**				
8.FTP Value	4.43	1.2	.182**	.095	.264**	.001	..228**	.121*	.116*			
9.FTP Connectedness	5.47	1.16	.198**	.338**	.104	-.158**	.292**	.190**	.152**	.177**		
10.National Identity	4.36	.43	.044	.051	-.051	-.311**	.025	-.072	-.064	-.048	.112	
11.Oriented Identity	4.57	1.37	.151**	.390**	.260**	.061	.346**	.371**	.381**	.169**	.171**	-.164**

Note. N=299, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001.

Gender difference

Several independent-samples t-tests were run to determine if there were differences in the variables of interest between male and female participants. There were no outliers in the data for ought-to L2 self, feared L2 self, attitudes toward the community, oriented identity and motivated learning behavior, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot. For the ideal L2 self, the future time perspective constructs, the L2 learning experience, and instrumental motivation, there were a few outliers. Due to outliers, I ran a Mann-Whitney test to determine if there were differences in the aforementioned variables between men and women. Results were not statistically significant (see Table 3).

Academic degree of interest

Before continuing with my description of the results of the preliminary analysis, I need to explain that I will only provide full details of how I proceeded for all of these analyses for the first report on the effect of academic degrees being pursued and the dependent variables of interest. Thereafter, I will truncate my report.

Participants were asked to provide their future plans regarding the academic degree they intended to earn. I wanted to investigate whether the academic degree they were seeking had any effect on the variables of interests, namely on their future time value and connectedness, their future L2 selves, their motivated learning behavior, and their perceptions of national versus oriented identities. In

order to test the null hypothesis that there were no group differences, one-way MANOVAs were performed. The alpha level for testing the null was set at .05.

First, the Box's test of Equality of covariance Matrices showed that the significance value was greater than .05, indicating that the assumption of equal variances among the groups was met for the overall dependent variables. When I looked at the Levene's Test of Equality of Error variances, I found that except for the ideal L2 Self, F (4, 282)= 2.923, p <. 022, and the ought-to L2 self, F(4, 283)= 2.872, p <.023, the assumption that there was equal variances across groups for the dependent variables was met. Next, based on the significance of Pillai's trace test= .268, F(44, 1104)= 1.801, P<. 001, η^2=.67, with high observed power, the initial null hypothesis that the groups did not differ was rejected. Therefore, the academic degree that the participants were seeking/ desired to seek has an effect on the dependent variables. I chose Pillai's Trace test because I had unequal n's in each group to correct for any assumption(s) I might have violated.

When I then looked at the group differences for each dependent variables, I found that groups significantly differed from each other in future time perspective connectedness (FTPC), instrumental motivation, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and motivated learning behavior.

The Post-hoc test of Tukey HSD showed that academic degree sought had a statistically significant effect on their motivated learning behavior, ideal L2 self, FTPV. That is, groups showed statistical differences among each other on these three dependent variables. As for motivated learning behavior (MLB Effort), participants who were seeking MA/MS degrees were statistically significantly

different from participants who were seeking a PhD. degree, at the p<.006 with a mean difference of .47. MA/MS students had higher mean scores on Motivated learning Behavior. As for ideal L2 self, undergraduate students statistically significantly differed from MA/MS students at the p<.049 with a mean difference of 1.09. And finally, in terms of future time perspective value construct, undergraduate students statistically significantly differed from Post-Doc students at the p <.021 with a mean difference of 2.85; and MA/MS students statistically differed from Post-Doc students in terms of how much they value future at the p<.05 with a mean difference of 2.31 (see Table 4).

Proficiency Level

Although it was not one of the target construct of this study, I also wanted to investigate if participants' proficiency level had any effect on the variables of interest, namely motivated learning behavior, their future L2 selves, their identities, and on how much they feel connected to the future or how much they valued the future. The proficiency level of the participants was categorized into four groups: advanced, high, average, and low-proficient learners. One–way MANOVAs were performed to test if there were any group differences.

As with the academic degree being pursued comparison, I first tested for the Box's test of equality of covariance matrices, found that there was indication of a violation of the assumption of equal variances among the groups for the overall dependent variables. Then I used Levene's Test of Equality of Error variances and found that for the most part the assumption of equal variances across groups for the

dependent variables was met. Next, because the assumptions of equality of variances among the groups for the aforementioned dependent variables as not met, and there was an unequal number of participants in each category, I used Pillai's trace test and found that null hypothesis that the groups did not differ could be rejected. Therefore, I concluded that the English proficiency level of the participants had an effect on the dependent variables.

The groups significantly differed from each other on Instrumental motivation, attitudes toward the target community, L2 learning experience, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and oriented identity. Table 5 also shows which groups differed according to post-hoc tests of Tukey (HSD). Overall, the findings showed two common trends. First, higher proficiency learners (advanced and high proficient learners) usually significantly differed from less proficient learners with respect to the ideal L2 self, attitudes towards the target community, and L2 learning experience. That is, learners who were more proficient had higher mean scores for the ideal L2 self, attitudes toward the target community, and L2 learning experience. Second, the mean scores of the lower proficient learners' were higher compared to higher proficient learners on the variables of the ought-to L2 self and instrumental motivation (see Table 5).

Intention to stay in the U.S

One of the questions on the background survey asked participants whether they had any intention to stay in the U.S. upon completion of their degree in the U.S.

universities. One-way MANOVA analysis was employed to see if participants' intention to stay in the U.S. had any effect on the constructs.

I followed the same procedure (i.e., the Box's test of equality of covariance matrices, Levene's Test of Equality of Error variances, and Pillai's trace) mentioned above to determine if groups statistically significantly differed from each other on all dependent variables. Based on the significance of Pillai's trace test= .173, F(22, 570)=2.449, p<. 000, η^2=.086, with an observed power of .99, the initial null hypothesis that the groups did not differ was rejected. Therefore, participants' intention to stay in the U.S. had an effect on the dependent variables.

The Post-hoc test of Tukey HSD showed that participants' intention to stay in the U.S. showed statistically significant differences on their ideal L2 self, instrumental motivation, attitude towards the target community, their connectedness to the future, and their oriented identities. In other words, participants who had intentions to stay in the U.S., who had no intentions for staying in the U.S., or who were indecisive significantly differed from each other on those five variables. Overall, the findings showed that the participants who had intentions to stay in the U.S. and the ones who might stay had higher ideal L2 self, instrumental motivation, and oriented identities mean score compared to the ones who were determine to go back to Turkey. In addition, with respect to attitudes towards the L2 culture, participants who were determined to stay in the U.S. upon earning their graduate degrees had higher mean scores on the attitudes towards the L2 community compared to the "maybe" and "no" group. Also, the "maybe" group statistically significantly scored higher on the attitude scale compared to

participants who wanted to go back to Turkey. In a nutshell, learners who wanted the stay in the U.S. had more positive attitudes toward the people of the target community. As for connectedness to the future, the learners who thought they would stay in the U.S. had higher mean scores for the measure of future time perspective connectedness in comparison with the participants who wanted to go back to Turkey (see Table 6).

Marital status

One of the background questions was about participants' marital status, and I tested whether marital status might play a role on any of the dependent variables. The one-way MANOVA depicted that marital status did not have any significant effect on any of the dependent variables, $F(33, 855)= 1.024$, $p= .432$; $\wedge= .890$, $\eta^2 = .038$ with an observed power of .909 (see Table 7).

Nationality

I was also curious as to whether nationality of the participants (e.g. being Turkish versus Kurdish) might have any effect on the dependent variables. The one-way MANOVA showed that nationality did not significantly play a role in any of the variables I was investigating, $F (11,285)= .601$, $p=.827$; $\wedge=.977$, $\eta^2 =.023$ with an observed high power of .330. This might be due to unequal number of the participants as there were very few Kurdish participants (see Table 8).

Interaction with native speakers

Participants were asked to provide information regarding the number of hours they spent interacting with native speakers, which ranged from 1 hour to 18 hours per day. The MANOVA findings depicted that the amount of interaction with native speakers did not significantly affect the dependent variables, F (14, 156) = 1.159, p=. 109; ∧=.346, η^2=. 092 with high observed power.

Language spoken at home

One of the background questions asked participants which language they spoke "at home." Considering the fact that willingness/preference of language choice (English versus Turkish) might have an effect on several dependent variables, I decided to investigate whether there were any group mean differences based on language preference of the participants. Results of a MANOVA analysis displayed that there were no differences on the dependent variables with respect to the language spoken at home. That is, participants who preferred to communicate in Turkish or in English at home did not differ on any of the dependent variables.

Duration of the stay in the current institution

Considering the possibility that participants who have been in U.S. universities longer might differ on some of the dependent variables, I decided to explored whether duration in the U.S. might make a difference on the variables of interest, using a one-way MANOVA. The finding revealed that duration of the stay in U.S. did not play any significant effect on any of the dependent variables, F (44, 939)= .882, p=. 691; Wilk's ∧=.857, η^2=. 03, with a power of .908.

Table 3 Means table for gender

	MLB M SD	IS M SD	OS M SD	FS M SD	INST M SD	L2EXP M SD	ATTC M SD	FTPV M SD	FTPC M SD	NID M SD	ORID M SD	N
Gender												
Female	5.05(1.15)	5.80(1.19)	4.13(1.51)	2.46(1.31)	5.71(1.25)	4.90(1.53)	5.07(1.35)	4.31(1.22)	5.55(1.15)	4.43(.35)	4.62(1.46)	135
Male	4.86(1.01)	5.61(1.03)	4.08(1.44)	2.52(1.25)	5.44(1.26)	4.60(1.40)	4.74(1.26)	4.52(1.18)	5.40(1.17)	4.29(.48)	4.55(1.29)	163

Note. IS= Ideal L2 Scale; OS= Ought-to L2 self scale; FS= Feared L2 self scale; INST= Instrumental motivation scale; L2E= L2 learning Experience scale; NID= National identity scale; ORID= Oriented identity scale; FTPV= Future time perspective value scale; FTPC= Future time perspective connectedness scale; MLB= Motivated Learning behavior scale; ATTC= Attitudes toward target community scale.

Table 4 Means table for academic degree of interest

	MLB M (SD)	IS M (SD)	OS M (SD)	FS M (SD)	INST M (SD)	L2EXP M (SD)	FTPV M (SD)	FTPC M (SD)	NID M (SD)	ORID M(SD)	N
Academic degree of Interest											
Undergraduate	4.77(1.43)	6.60(.42)	5.03(.91)	2.42(1.44)	6.56(.60)	4.90(1.41)	5.10(.90)	6.15(.72)	4.45(.23)	5.27(.70)	8
MA/MS	5.11(.99)	5.51(1.18)	4.25(1.47)	2.41(1.25)	5.65(1.23)	4.69(1.48)	4.56(1.17)	5.42(1.22)	4.42(.44)	4.41(1.39)	160
Ph.D.	4.63(1.10)	5.86 (.92)	3.74(1.39)	2.65(1.33)	5.43(1.26)	4.79(1.41)	4.29(1.15)	5.47(1.07)	4.28(.44)	4.72(1.33)	92
Post- Doc	4.5(.00)	4.42(1.21)	2.37(.00)	2.42(.80)	4.50(.47)	3.00(1.23)	2.25(1.41)	3.80(2.26)	4.50(.14)	3.58(2.94)	2
Other	5.05(1.15)	5.9(1.13)	3.97(1.57)	2.35(1.13)	5.28(1.48)	4.83(1.59)	3.98(1.38)	5.52(1.11)	4.35(.42)	4.64(1.35)	26

Note. IS= Ideal L2 Scale; OS= Ought-to L2 self scale; FS= Feared L2 self scale; INST= Instrumental motivation scale; L2E= L2 learning Experience scale; NID= National identity scale; ORID= Oriented identity scale; FTPV= Future time perspective value scale; FTPC= Future time perspective connectedness scale; MLB= Motivated Learning behavior scale; ATTC= Attitudes toward target community scale.

Table 5 Means table for proficiency level

	MLB M SD	IS M SD	OS M SD	FS M SD	INST M SD	L2EXP M SD	ATTC M SD	FTPV M SD	FTPC M SD	NID M SD	ORID M SD	N
Proficiency level												
Advanced	4.65(1.25)	6.14(.76)	4.08(1.40)	2.56(1.29)	5.48(1.22)	5.40(1.24)	5.47(1.29)	4.38(1.29)	5.71(.97)	4.31(.48)	5.00(1.52)	35
High	4.93(1.03)	5.71(1.15)	3.69(1.45)	2.75(1.39)	5.40(1.33)	5.02(1.52)	4.89(1.30)	4.39(1.25)	5.19(1.35)	4.34(.41)	4.77(1.34)	91
Mid	5.08(.92)	5.51(1.03)	4.154(1.35)	2.42(1.22)	5.58(1.18)	4.66 (1.22)	4.70(1.33)	4.38(1.18)	5.59 (1.05)	4.38(.50)	4.32(1.2)	78
Low	4.82(1.21)	5.52(1.74)	5.62(1.40)	1.98 (1.21)	6.40(.68)	3.43(1.54)	5.00(1.55)	4.97(1.09)	5.67(1.32)	4.54(.25)	4.31(145)	17

Note. IS= Ideal L2 Scale; OS= Ought-to L2 self scale; FS= Feared L2 self scale; INST= Instrumental motivation scale; L2E= L2 learning Experience scale; NID= National identity scale; ORID= Oriented identity scale; FTPV= Future time perspective value scale; FTPC= Future time perspective connectedness scale; MLB= Motivated Learning behavior scale; ATTC= Attitudes toward target community scale.

Table 6 Means table for intention to stay in the U.S.

	MLB M (SD)	IS M (SD)	OS M (SD)	FS M (SD)	INST M (SD)	L2EXP M (SD)	ATTC M (SD)	FTPV M(SD)	FTPC M (SD)	NID M (SD)	ORID M (SD)	N
Intention to stay												
Yes	5.02 (.10)	5.87 (.11)	4.22 (.14)	2.46 (.12)	5.89 (.12)	4.94 (.14)	5.35 (.12)	4.40 (.12)	5.55 (.11)	4.35 (.04)	4.91(.13)	98
No	4.82 (.11)	5.27 (.11)	4.10 (.15)	2.53 (.13)	5.17 (.13)	4.44 (.15)	4.42 (.13)	4.32 (.13)	5.18 (.12)	4.29 (.04)	4.11(.14)	86
Maybe	5.01 (.10)	5.86 (.10)	4.06 (.13)	2.50 (.12)	5.63 (.11)	4.80 (.13)	4.87 (.11)	4.53 (.11)	5.62 (.10)	4.41 (.04)	4.63 (.12)	113

Note. IS= Ideal L2 Scale; OS= Ought-to L2 self scale; FS= Feared L2 self scale; INST= Instrumental motivation scale; L2E= L2 learning Experience scale; NID= National identity scale; ORID= Oriented identity scale; FTPV= Future time perspective value scale; FTPC= Future time perspective connectedness scale; MLB= Motivated Learning behavior scale; ATTC= Attitudes toward target community scale.

Table 7 Means table for marital status

	MLB M SD	IS M SD	OS M SD	FS M SD	INST M SD	L2EXP M SD	ATTC M SD	FTPV M SD	FTPC M SD	NID M SD	ORID M SD	N
Marital status												
Single	4.99(1.10)	5.74(1.11)	4.15(1.44)	2.38(1.27)	5.59(1.24)	4.77(1.50)	4.95(1.35)	4.51(1.14)	5.46(1.17)	4.38(.43)	4.56(1.36)	217
Engaged	5.01(1.03)	5.62(1.15)	4.27(1.76)	3.26(1.35)	5.83(1.04)	5.14(1.02)	5.15(1.57)	4.28(1.38)	5.61(1.01)	4.28(.43)	4.92(1.16)	19
Married	4.80(1.01)	5.53(1.10)	3.96(1.50)	2.65(1.22)	5.47(1.39)	4.54(1.45)	4.55(1.21)	4.20(1.28)	5.46(1.21)	4.31(.47)	4.57(1.49)	59
Divorced	3.91(1.06)	6.21(.30)	3.12(.35)	2.92(.90)	4.33(1.17)	4.40(1.41)	4.66(.47)	3.00(1.41)	5.30(.98)	4.50(.14)	3.91(.58)	2

Note. IS= Ideal L2 Scale; OS= Ought-to L2 self scale; FS= Feared L2 self scale; INST= Instrumental motivation scale; L2E= L2 learning Experience scale; NID= National identity scale; ORID= Oriented identity scale; FTPV= Future time perspective value scale; FTPC= Future time perspective connectedness scale; MLB= Motivated Learning behavior scale; ATTC= Attitudes toward target community scale.

Table 8 Means table for nationality

	MLB M SD	IS M SD	OS M SD	FS M SD	INST M SD	L2EXP M SD	ATTC M SD	FTPV M SD	FTPC M SD	NID M SD	ORID M SD	N
Nationality												
Turkish	5.28(.27)	6.13(.27)	4.26(.37)	2.50(.32)	5.64(.32)	5.28(.33)	5.25(.33)	4.22(.30)	5.47(.29)	4.21(1.11)	5.20(.34)	282
Other	4.92(.42)	5.03(.43)	3.88(.59)	2.03(.51)	5.57(.50)	4.15(.57)	4.61(.52)	4.62(.48)	5.60(.46)	4.35(1.17)	4.79(.54)	15

Note. IS= Ideal L2 Scale; OS= Ought-to L2 self scale; FS= Feared L2 self scale; INST= Instrumental motivation scale; L2E= L2 learning Experience scale; NID= National identity scale; ORID= Oriented identity scale; FTPV= Future time perspective value scale; FTPC= Future time perspective connectedness scale; MLB= Motivated Learning behavior scale; ATTC= Attitudes toward target community scale.

MAIN ANALYSES

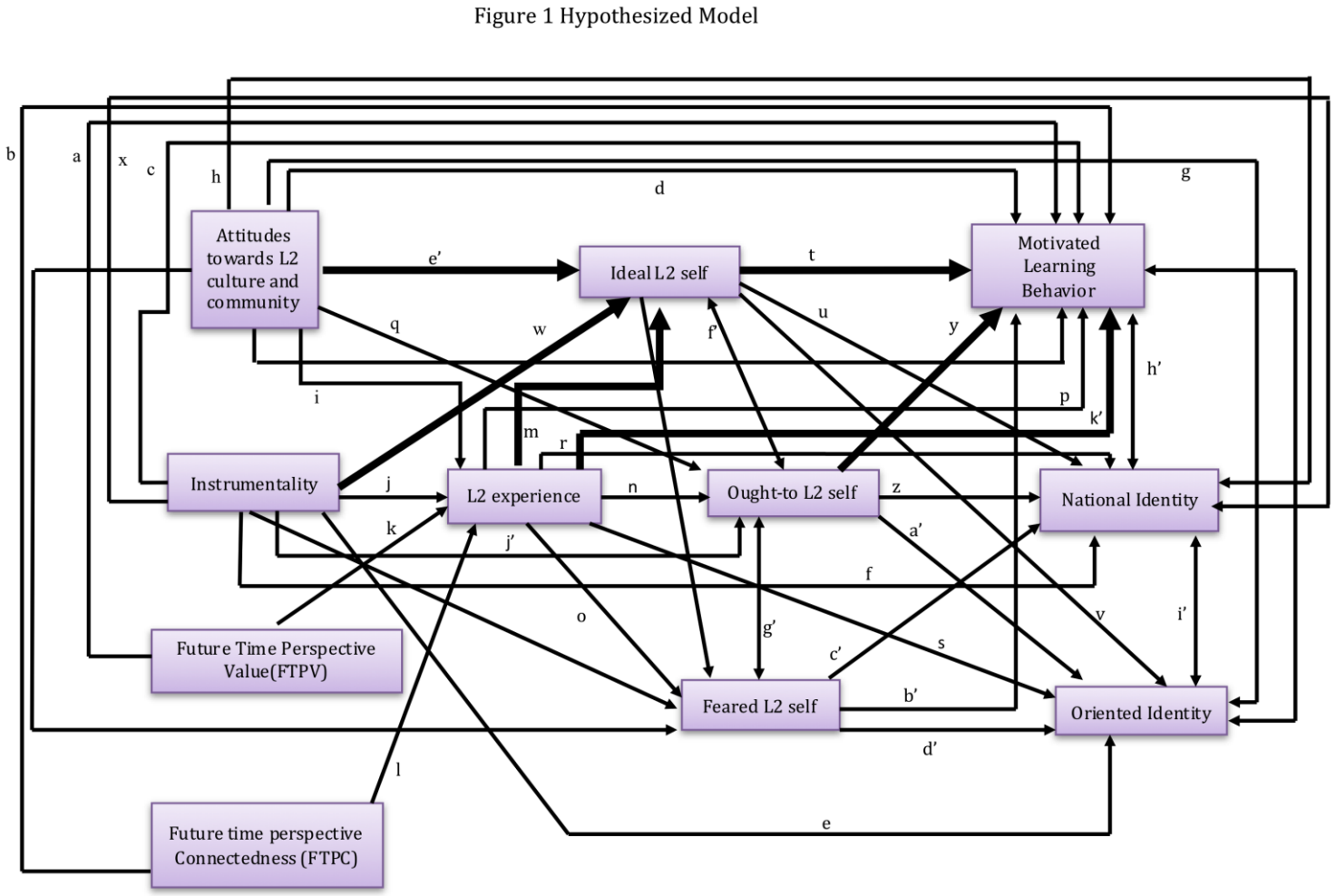
In this section, I first discuss the hypothesized model, explaining the reason for the hypotheses. Next, I present the findings on the model hypothesized and the modified model. Finally, I present the hierarchical regression analyses findings to confirm my path analyses findings.

Path Analyses with hypothesized model

One of the major hypothesis was that future time perspective, with its two sub-constructs, namely future time perspective connectedness and future time perspective value, would predict students' motivated learning behavior, and this prediction would be mediated by participants' L2 learning experience and three possible selves constructs. One other hypothesis was that instrumental motivation and attitudes toward the target community would predict participants' motivated learning behavior as well as their identities directly and indirectly. Also, based on theory and existing literature, I hoped to find the possible selves constructs, namely ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and feared L2 self, would predict participants' motivation to learn English and their identities (see Figure 1 for the hypothesized model).

The initial test of the hypothesized model showed that it did not fit the data well: χ^2 (10, N=299)= 38.023, P<.001, CFI=.94, TLI=.73, SRMR=.03, RMSEA=.09 (from .06 to .13).

Figure 1. Hypothesized model

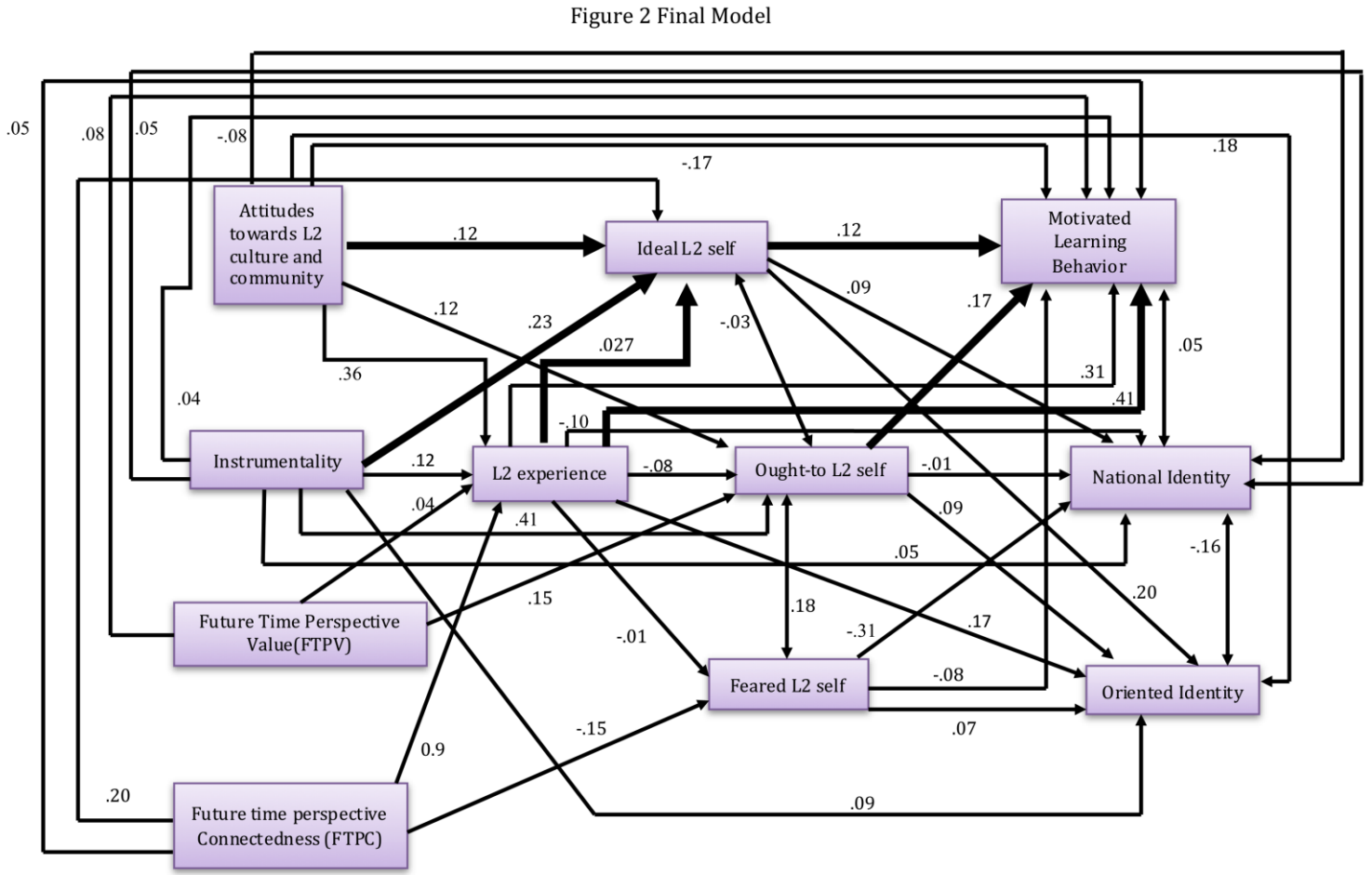


Note. The paths in bold are significant paths found in other studies. The non-bold paths are hypothesized in this study.

First model. For my first step, I tested the full initial model in which I hypothesized that participants' future time perspectives, their instrumental motivation, and their attitudes toward the target community would predict their motivated learning behavior and national and oriented identities, and that this prediction would be mediated through L2 experience and possible selves constructs (see Figure 1 for the full model). The model did not fit the data well: χ^2 (10, N=299)=38.02, P<.0.01, CFI=.94, TLI=.73, SRMR=.03, RMSEA=.09 (from .06 to .13).

Final Model. Considering the modification indices and theory, I added three more direct paths from future time perspective connectedness to ideal L2 self and feared L2 self, and from future time perspective value to ought-to L2 self. After adding these three direct paths, now the model fit the data well: χ^2 (7, N=299)= 6.39, p=.49, CFI=1.0, TLI=1.0, SRMR= .01, and RMSEA=.8 (from .00 to .06) (see Figure 2 for the final model).

Figure 2. Final model



Note: The paths in bold have been studied in the literature and found to be significant.

The associations between variables of interest and motivated learning behavior (MLB)

As predicted, attitudes toward the target community, L2 experience, ideal L2 self, and ought-to L2 self significantly predicted motivated learning behavior. However, in contrast to what I had hypothesized, future time perspective, instrumental motivation, and feared L2 self did not significantly predict motivated learning behavior. The reason for these nonsignificant paths could be because they shared some variance with attitudes toward the L2 community and L2 experience, which were already stronger predictors of motivated learning behavior.

Next, I unravel each significant association between variables step by step starting with the first endogenous variable, motivated learning behavior (see Figure 3 for all paths mentioned). As hypothesized and expected based on the findings in the existing literature, ideal L2 self and motivated learning behavior were significantly related. When the learners had vivid and clear image of themselves using English effectively, they were more likely to exert effort in improving their proficiency skill. Another interesting finding that also supported the established research was that ought-to L2 self had also a direct effect on motivated learning behavior. When individuals felt they were obliged to learn English to meet others' expectations, they were more likely to demonstrate effort and intention to improve their proficiency. Although I speculated that there might be a significant association between feared L2 self and motivated learning behavior, the findings of this path analysis did not support such a path. This nonsignificant association does not mean there is no relationship. It might be interpreted that the association is not as strong

as I anticipated. Based on individuals' scores on feared L2 selves on the survey and individuals' reports regarding the worries they experienced associated with learning or knowing English, I learned that feared L2 self existed. Also, L2 learning experience was strongly and positively related to motivated learning behavior which supports the existing findings in the literature (Papi, 2010; Taguchi et.al., 2009). This means when learners have positive English learning experiences, they are more likely to demonstrate persistence and effort in improving their L2.

One puzzling finding was the association between attitudes towards the target culture and people and motivated learning behavior. The association was negative and indicated that when learners had positive attitudes toward the community, they were less motivated to exert effort to learn English. The reason could be because they might no longer find a reason to exert more effort as they could already survive in the culture. That is, these participants were living in the target culture at the time of the study. Despite not being very proficient in English, many of them were successfully surviving in the U.S. It is possible that these individuals might have developed positive attitudes towards the target culture due to their interactions with the target community people and their experiences. On the other hand, seeing themselves surviving in the target country despite their limited proficiency might have negatively affected their motivated learning behavior. There may also be a statistical reason for getting a negative association between motivated learning behavior and attitudes. This negative association between ATTC and MLB could be interpreted as a suppression effect. According to Kline (2011), even when the predictor variables have positive correlations with the criterion variable and

each other, the beta weight might be negative, which is indicative of a negative suppression. Thus, having a negative association does not always mean that the relationship between predictor variable and criterion variable is negative but rather that the addition of another variable to the path model might suppress or boost the magnitude of the relationship (see Figure 3).

In the analysis, I also looked at the relationship between exogenous variables and possible selves constructs and L2 learning experience. Interestingly, the path between attitudes toward the L2 culture and ought-to L2 self came out significant, which might mean that when individuals have positive attitudes toward the target community, they are likely to accept the obligations to learn English. Another expected finding was the association between instrumental motivation and ought-to L2 self. Both constructs have external basis. Therefore, I anticipated that their relationship would be significant, and as anticipated, the association between them was significant and moderately strong.

Among all the association that came out significant, I believe one of the most interesting and significant finding was the relationship between FTP Value and ought-to L2 self. This finding can be interpreted as when individuals value their future goals, they can see how learning English would help them achieve these goals which are related to meeting the expectation of others. It was also significant to note that FTP value was significantly related to ought-to L2 self, and FTP Connectedness was significantly related to ideal L2 self. This means that learners' ability to make connection between the present and future, namely having high future time connectedness, had a substantial effect on their ideal L2 self. In other words, it can be

speculated that when learners can see the link between present tasks and their future goals, they can create more vivid and clear ideal L2 selves (see Figure 3).

One of the hypotheses was that future orientations, both value and connectedness, and attitudes toward the target community and instrumental motivation would predict the L2 experience. Just as hypothesized, attitudes toward the target community and instrumental motivation significantly predicted the L2 experience, but unexpectedly, future perspectives did not predict the L2 experience (see Figure 3).

Also, I had anticipated that future orientations, instrumental motivation, and attitudes toward the target community, and the L2 experience would predict the possible selves constructs, namely ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and the feared L2 self. As anticipated, future time perspective connectedness, instrumental motivation, and attitudes toward the target community and L2 learning significantly predicted the ideal L2 self scores. For ought-to L2 self, except for the L2 experience, future time perspective value, instrumental motivation, and attitudes toward the target community were significant predictors as anticipated. On the other hand, except for future time perspective connectedness, none of the hypothesized variables (instrumental motivation, attitudes toward the target community, and L2 experience) predicted the feared L2 self (see Figure 3).

Moreover, it had hypothesized that the exogenous variables, namely future time perspective connectedness (FTPC) and value (FTPV), instrumental motivation, and attitudes toward the target community would be correlated. As anticipated, the variables were all significantly correlated with each other, either at the .05 level or

.01 level. In addition, as hypothesized, ought-to L2 self and feared L2 self scores were found to be significantly correlated. Finally, as predicted I found that national identity and oriented identity were correlated (see Figure 3).

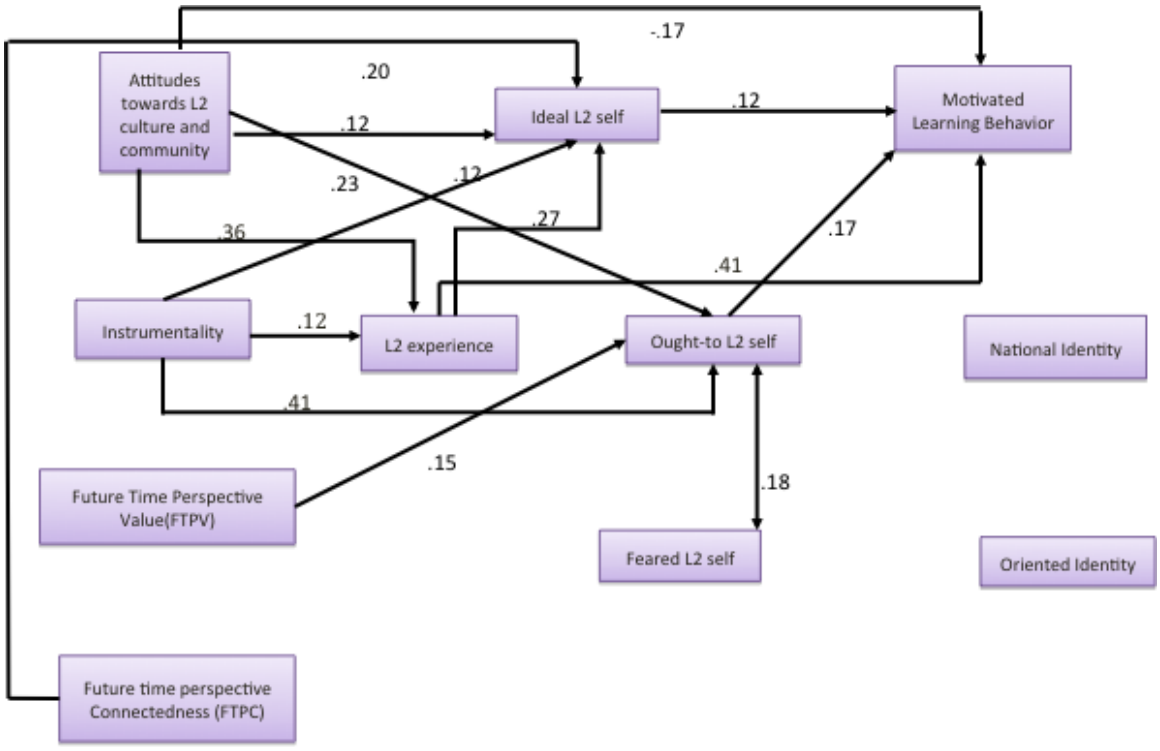


Figure 3. Final model with significant paths involving first exogenous variable: motivated learning behavior.

The associations between variables of interest and national identity

The second endogenous variable in this path model was national identity. In this section, I would like to present the paths related to national identity. National identity was operationalized as individuals' identification with their own home culture and people, and their sense of belongingness to their ethnic/national identity. National identity was only predicted by feared L2 self. The association was negative and moderately strong. This is indicating that when learners have worries

associated with knowing or learning English (e.g., being seen as arrogant, people criticizing them, losing their L1), their identification with their home countries was lower. This finding might mean that contrary to what I had speculated, feared L2 self may not be predicting the national identity but rather it could be the outcome of national identity. I also found that ought to L2 self and feared L2 self were correlated. The association was statistically significant and positive, but weak. This path is indicating that when individuals feel there is an obligation for them to learn English (e.g., gain approval, not being criticized about proficiency, not to be considered poorly educated, to get more respect), their worries associated with learning English increase. One interesting and original finding was that future time perspective connectedness (the ability to link present tasks with future goals) was significantly and negatively related to the feared L2 self. That is, when individuals could actually see the link between "learning English" and " its benefits for their future goals," they became less worried about "being seen as assimilated or arrogant" (see Figure 4).

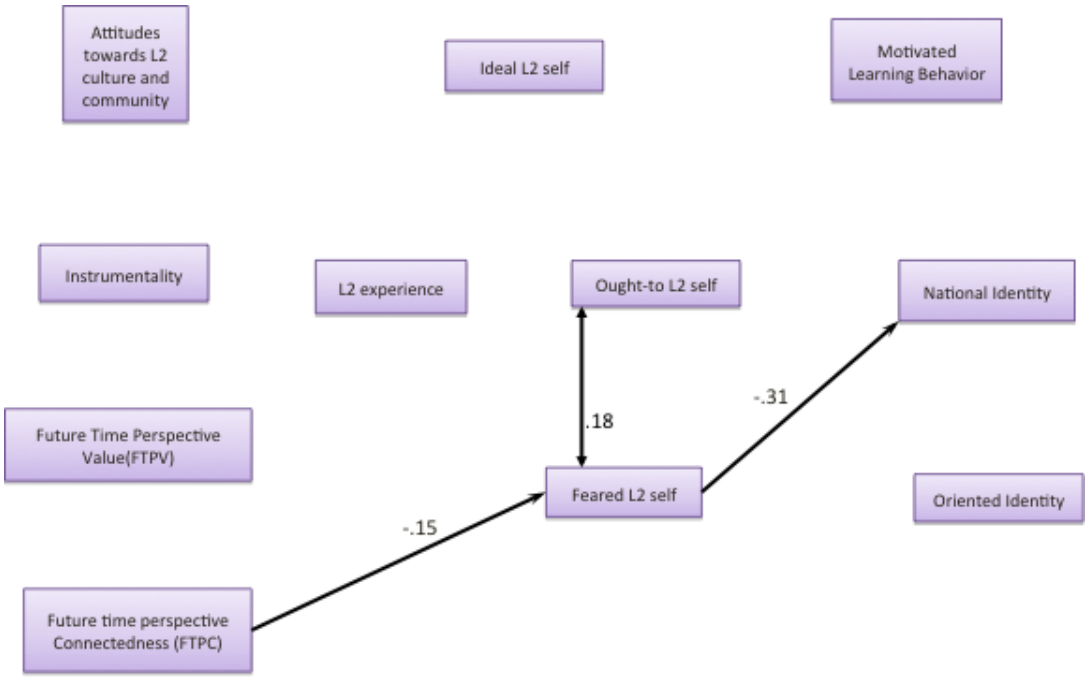


Figure 4. Final model with significant paths involving second exogenous variable: national identity.

The associations between variables of interest and oriented identity

In this path model, the last endogenous variable was oriented identity. Oriented identity is related to how much participants' level of identification with the target community people and their embracement of holding dual identities of being global and local identities. The analyses between the variables of interests and oriented identity also depicted interesting findings (see Figure 5).

First, among all three possible selves constructs, only the ideal L2 self had a direct association with oriented identity. That is, when individuals have vivid and clear images of themselves using English fluently and accurately (e.g., imagining one's self speaking English well, communicating in English in social contexts), they

are more willing to be seen as holding a hybrid identity or oriented identity. In addition, there was a direct significant path from L2 experience to oriented identity. L2 experience was related to participants' views about English (e.g., I like English, learning English is really great, it is interesting, etc). Therefore, the significant positive path from L2 experience to oriented identity is indicating that when participants have positive attitudes toward learning English, they will be more likely to develop an understanding that they have hybrid identities or that English is changing them, giving them an opportunity to create a "new" identity (see Figure 5).

Attitudes toward the target community had a direct effect on oriented identity, which was also expected. When individuals have positive attitudes toward the target community, they are more willing to be seen as a changed person and as more like the new community. There was also a direct and relatively strong association between attitudes toward the target culture and L2 experience. This strong and positive association suggests that when learners have positive attitudes toward the target community, they will develop more positive attitudes toward learning English, supporting my initial hypothesis regarding the association between these two variables. The association between instrumental motivation and L2 experience was also an expected finding. When learners view learning English as a means to get something (e.g., earning more money, having more access to jobs, etc), they can see how it will be useful, which might help them develop more positive attitudes (see Figure 5).

As hypothesized and expected, attitudes toward the L2 community was related to the ideal L2 self. Also, instrumentality was positively related to the ideal L2

self, and the L2 experience was positively and significantly related to the ideal L2 self. In other words, when individuals have positive attitudes, and/or have instrumental reasons for learning English, or when they have positive learning experiences with respect to English, they are more likely to develop positive, clearer vivid imagery of themselves using English (see Figure 5).

One of the most interesting and important finding was that FTP Connectedness was positively related to the ideal L2 self, which indicated that when individuals could see the link between present tasks (learning English) and future goals (becoming a professional in their respective fields), they could imagine themselves using English effectively and vividly. It is important to remember that FTPC is negatively related to feared L2 self. Thus, when they could not see the link, their worries associated with the feared L2 self could increase (see Figure 5).

In conclusion, this path model illustrated that there is moderately strong relationships between individuals' attitudes toward the target culture and people, their instrumental motivation to learn English, their future orientations and L2 learning experiences, and possible selves constructs (e.g., ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, feared L2 self) and criterion variables of interests, which were motivated learning behavior, and national and oriented identities. In addition, it is important to note that these findings should be interpreted with consideration of the complexity of the model and uniqueness of the population (see Figure 5).

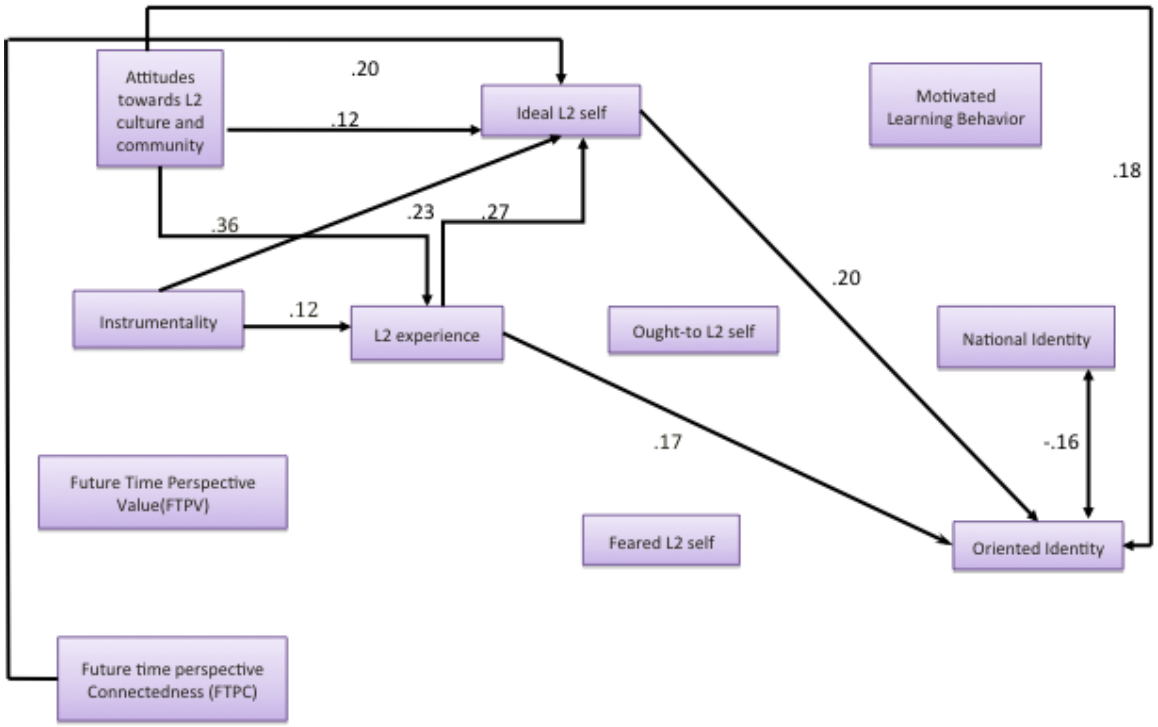


Figure 5. Final model with significant paths involving third exogenous variable: oriented identity.

Indirect associations in the path model

As for indirect effects, there was a statistically significant indirect effect of attitudes toward the target community (ATTC) on ideal L2 self which was mediated by L2 experience. Moreover, the instrumental motivation had a significant indirect effect on ideal L2 self, which was mediated by the L2 experience. Finally, the L2 experience scores had a statistically significant indirect effect on oriented identity, which was mediated by ideal L2 self (see Figure 6).

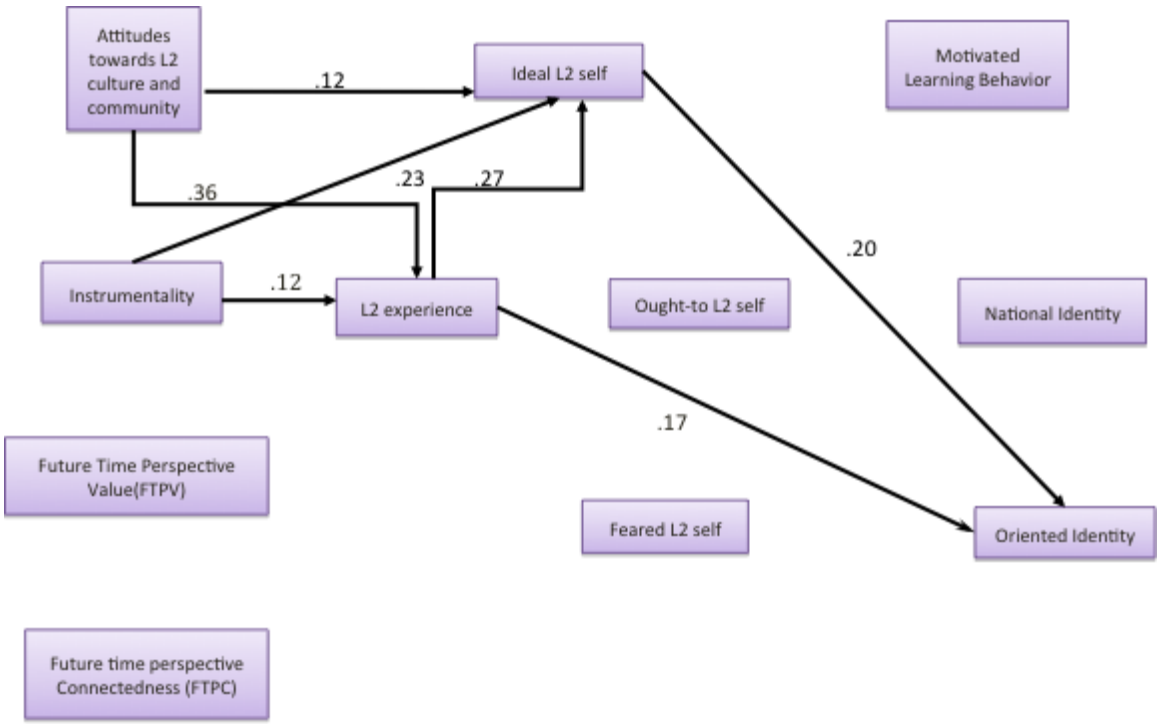


Figure 6. Final model with significant indirect paths.

Hierarchical Regression Analyses

I conducted several hierarchical multiple regressions to determine the contributions of independent variables, participants' intention to stay in the U.S., their proficiency level and the degree they were seeking, and their L2 experience and ideal, ought-to L2, and feared L2 self on each of the dependent variables. The background variables, such as intention to stay in the U.S., their proficiency level and the degree they are seeking were entered at step 1, instrumental motivation, attitudes toward the target community, and future orientations were entered at step 2, the L2 experience entered at step 3, and finally the three L2 possible selves constructs were entered as predictors of each dependent variable at step 4.

Conducted with each dependent variable, step 1 of the hierarchical regression analyses tested the degree to which participants' instrumental motivation, their attitudes toward the target community, and their future orientations predicted their motivated learning behavior. Results of the step 1 regression analyses for motivated learning behavior indicated a nonsignificant prediction by the background variables. Results of step 1 regression analyses for national identity also indicated a nonsignificant prediction by the background variables. However, step 1 regression analysis for the oriented identity indicated a significant prediction by the intention to stay in the U.S. (see Table 9 for a summary of these regressions).

In step 2, when learners' instrumental motivations, their attitudes and their future orientations were entered into the regression in addition to background variables, learners' motivated learning behavior was statistically significantly predicted only by instrumental motivation, and attitudes toward the target community. Future time orientations did not significantly contribute to explanation of the motivated learning behavior. In step 2 for national identity, the overall regression equation was not statistically significant, and none of the independent variables significantly predicted the national identity. In step 2 for oriented identity, instrumental motivation, attitudes toward the target community and FTP value significantly predicted oriented identity. However, FTP connectedness had a small and nonsignificant effect on oriented identity (see Table 9 for the summary of the analyses).

In step 3, when L2 learning experience was entered into the equation in addition to background variables and instrumental motivation, attitudes, and future

orientations, it significantly predicted motivated learning behavior and oriented identity. The effect of L2 experience on motivated learning behavior was statistically significant and substantial, and it had a small to moderate statistically significant effect on oriented identity. However, L2 experience had only a small and nonsignificant effect on national identity (see Table 9 for the summary of the analyses).

In step 4, the ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and feared L2 self were entered into the equation in addition to variables from steps 1, 2, and 3. For motivated learning behavior, only ideal L2 self scores made a moderate and statistically significant contribution to predicting motivated learning behavior, whereas the ought-to L2 self had a nonsignificant small effect, and the feared L2 self had a nonsignificant tiny effect on motivated learning behavior. Similarly, in the prediction of oriented identity, only the ideal L2 self scores had a small to moderate significant effect. The effect of ought-to L2 self was small but not significant, and the effect of feared L2 self was tiny and not significant. Interestingly and surprisingly, for national identity, only the feared L2 self significantly predicted scores to a moderate and statistically significant degree.

Table 9 Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Motivated Learning Behavior, National identity and oriented identity

		Motivated Learning behavior				National Identity				Oriented Identity			
Variable		B	S*E* B	β	R^2	B	S*E*	β	R^2	B	S*E*	β	R^2
Step 1	Intention to Stay in the U.S	.001	.086	.001	.015	.034	.037	.062	.019	-.237	.108	-.146*	.059
	Proficiency	.096	.089	.076		.049	.038	.090		-.278	.112	-.171*	
	Academic degr.	-.101	.091	-.078		-.032	.039	-.058		.068	.114	.041	
Step 2	Intention to Stay in the U.S	.013	.085	.010	.077	.034	.037	.064	.049	-.155	.097	-.095	.271
	Proficiency	.065	.089	.051		.041	.039	.075		-.265	.102	-.163*	
	Academic degr.	-.043	.091	-.033		-.038	.040	-.069		.169	.104	.102	
	Instrumental Mot.	.134	.068	.158		.018	,029	.051		.231	.078	.213**	
	Attitudes twrd Community	-.010	.059	-.013		-.019	.025	-.058		.265	.067	.265***	
	FTP Value	.103	.059	.121		-.042	.026	-.114		.131	.067	.120	
	FTP Connect	.075	.062	.086		.050	.027	.134		.075	.070	.067	
Step 3	Intention to stay In the U.S.	-.022	.076	-.017	.272	.037	.037	.068	.054	-.173	.095	-.106	.302
	Proficiency	.263	.084	.208**		.026	.041	.049		-.164	.105	-.101	
	Academic degr.	-.060	.084	-.046		-.037	.040	-.067		.160	.102	.097	
	Instrumental Mot.	.036	.062	.042		.026	.030	.071		.181	.078	.167*	
	Attitudes twrd Community	-.136	.055	-.174*		-.010	.027	-.030		.200	.069	.200**	
	FTP Value	.079	.052	.093		-.040	.026	-.110		.119	.066	.108	
	FTP Connect	.047	.055	.054		.052	.027	.139		.061	.069	.055	
	L2 Experience	.385	.051	.532***		-.028	.025	-.090		.198	.065	,213**	.
Step 4	Intention to stay In the U.S.	-.014	.075	-.011	.301	.045	.035	.083	.180	-.164	.094	-.101	.332
	Proficiency	.266	.086	.210**		-.003	.040	-.006		-.158	.107	-.097	
	Academic degr.	-.090	.081	-.070		-.036	.038	-.065		.123	.102	.074	
	Instrumental Mot.	-.040	.068	-.048		.033	.031	.091		.079	.085	.073	
	Attitudes twrd	-.161	.055	-.207 **		-.012	.025	-.036		.168	.069	.168*	

Table 9 (cont.)

Community									
FTP Value	.064	.052	.075	-.028	.024	-.076	.097	.066	.088
FTP Connect	.029	.057	.033	.019	.026	.050	.046	.071	.041
L2 Experience	.357	.052	.493***	-.039	.024	-.127	.165	.066	.178*
Ideal L2 self	.163	.066	.174*	.020	.031	.051	.198	.083	.165*
Ought-to L2 self	.081	.051	.114	-.004	.023	-.015	.113	.064	.124
Feared L2 self	.012	.049	.015	-.124	.023	-.362***	.036	.062	.034

Note. N=219, *<.05, **P<.01, ***P<.001

Qualitative Analysis of Future L2 selves and Identity Projections

To support my understanding of the quantitative analyses, I conducted interviews with 10 participants who had responded to the survey. The participants were theoretically chosen because they had met criteria to be interviewed. The selection criterion was to chose the top 10% of respondents on the ideal L2 self and on feared L2 self scales.

All of the interviewees were in the U.S. to earn graduate degrees. There were three men and the rest were all female students. Ozlem, Meral, Melih, Emir, Aylin, Tugba, and Seyda (all pseudonyms) were at the time funded by Turkish government. Ozlem and Meral were expected to complete their master's degree and return to work in national petroleum company. Melih, Seyda, Aylin, Tugba, and Emir were expected to earn master's degrees and doctoral degrees in U.S. universities and return to Turkey to teach at national universities. Selim and Melis had came to seek doctoral degrees in U.S., and Helin was earning a master's degree and applying for her doctoral study at the time of the interview. Helin and Tugba had earned degrees from language education programs in Turkey from a prestigious university, and they had taught English for a few years. Ozlem, Meral, and Melis had received their Bachelor degrees from an English-Medium Instruction university, and they had had intensive English instruction before. Selim and Seyda were, on the other hand, from a university where English courses were offered on an optional basis. Despite having relatively less opportunities to learn English, they were both proficient in English at the time of the study. Emir had received previous intensive English instruction, but he had had to attend ESL courses for a year in U.S. to improve his

score on the TOEFL in order to study in a graduate degree in the U.S. Table 10 presents the summary of participants' backgrounds.

After the analysis of the survey data and determining the participants who were on the top 10 % of the ideal L2 self and the feared L2 self scales, I contacted the participants who were willing to have a follow-up interview. Among the 20 participants contacted, these ten participants agreed to be interviewed. The interviews were conducted either face-to-face or via Skype depending on the availability and accessibility of the participant. In the face-to-face condition, the interviewee chose where to be interviewed, either in a coffee shop or in a common study area available to students. Both time and date of the interviews were determined by the interviewees.

After the analysis of the data, four major themes emerged: L2 learning experiences and attitudes; hopes/aspirations, obligations, and worries regarding the use English as a second/foreign language; changes in their views in terms of the target culture as well as their home culture; projections of their identities as either nationalists or as individuals with more oriented and hybrid identities.

Table 10. Demographics of Participants involved in the interviews

	Gender	Year in the U.S.	Degree	Major	Age
Selim	M	5.5 years	Ph.D	Engineering	30
Ozlem	F	2	MS	Engineering	26
Meral	F	2	MS	Engineering	25
Melis	F	4	Ph.D	Political Science	30
Helin	F	2	MA	Education	28
Melih	M	1	MS & Ph.D	Engineering	24
Tugba	F	2	MA & Ph.D	Education	26
Aylin	F	4	MA & Ph.D	Neuroscience	27
Emir	M	1	MA & Ph.D	Tourism	26
Seyda	F	3	MA & Ph.D	Education	27

L2 learning experiences

Views about English

Qualitative data results suggested that participants differed in their attitudes toward English before they came to study in the U.S. and after living in the U.S. In Turkey, English is the most commonly offered foreign language and it is compulsory at the K-12 level. English instruction is usually limited to two hours per week. There were four different views expressed in their attitudes toward learning English.

The first groups included the individuals who had previously viewed English as any other course and did not have any particular interest in improving their English, and thus, their efforts did not go beyond the classroom. However, these individuals were more intending to learn and/or improve English in a drastically more intense way after coming to the States, with English now a major stepping stone for them to realize their future goals. Learning and improving their English proficiency was the primary concern for them, as it was necessary to achieve their future goals.

> Learning English in Turkey was nothing for me. I had never needed it there. I am a teacher. I would be a K-12 teacher. I would not use English to teach. I would also never need any English resources to teach. Therefore, it was not important for me at all. After university, I got this scholarship, and I will be a professor at the X university in Turkey. Now I have to learn it, and I have to have a good level of English. (Seyda, 27, MA, Education)

The second category consisted of learners whose views had changed after seeing the benefit of knowing English in the foreign country. In other words, for some of the participants, coming to the U.S., interacting with native speakers, and seeing themselves actually using English for meaningful purposes led to a change in their attitudes towards learning/improving English.

> When I was in Turkey, I did not think English was different than any other course I had. I did not need to learn it. Here, you know, you need it but the best part is when you start using it and seeing yourself actually communicating with people, then you start to like it. I am in particular a talkative person and when I get positive feedback from people during an interaction, I feel very happy. Here the importance of knowing English is huge for me. (Emir, 26, MA, Tourism)

The third category was composed of one participant who was adamant in her perspective regarding English. Despite interacting with native speakers and using English for meaningful purposes, she maintained her strong negative attitude, and openly reported that she exerted effort in learning English for basically instrumental reasons.

> I am a bad learner of English. For instance, I am not eager to learn it. To me, as long as I have adequate level of English, that is enough. I will not put extra effort to improve it further. In high school, I told myself that I would learn it when I got into college. When in college, I struggled a lot. I did learn it but still did not like it. My parents are quite surprised at my situation. They say "you do not like it but you are in the U.S. doing you Masters." (Meral, 26, MS, Engineering)

The last group of learners was intrinsically motivated learners who enjoyed learning English all along. They stated that they enjoyed learning languages,

including English. They also reported learning second and third languages, and one of them took private English courses prior to coming to the U.S. Melis, a 30 year-old Ph.D. student, stated, "I have always given value in learning a language. Learning a language, including English was important for me". Melih said,

> I have always liked learning English. Unfortunately, the university I attended did not offer opportunities for a better language instruction, but I took private English lesson outside classroom. And now I am teaching myself Spanish. I really enjoy learning languages (Melih, 26, MS, Engineering)

Views on current proficiency level and the need for higher proficiency

One interesting result that emerged from the interviews was these participants' views on their current proficiency level. The common problems these participants reported related to English were their distinct accent, problems in their intonation and stress, and limited vocabulary to express themselves. Except for three participants (Helin, Melis, and Aylin), the rest reported that they needed to improve certain aspects of their English, usually their speaking skills and their academic writing skills. Following that, three reported the need to enlarge their vocabulary. The 30 year-old Ph.D. student Melis stated, "I am overall satisfied about my current proficiency level. From time to time, I feel I cannot elaborate on certain topics due to not having wider range of vocabulary." Similarly, Selim reported,

> I wish I spoke better with more vocabulary range. I think it makes a huge difference when you use a variety of words to express something. I know if I knew a larger range of vocabulary, I could express myself better. (Selim, 30, Ph.D, Engineering)

As for accent and pronunciation, these learners were aware of their weaknesses as L2 users, partly because these weaknesses were brought to their attention by those around them, or via their own experiences. Ozlem, 26 year-old master's student said,

> Pronunciation can sometimes be a problem. For instance, one day I went to have lunch. I asked the person if they had any veggie option. He did not understand me. I repeated, he did not understand. In the end, he said, "I don't understand you." I left without ordering food. It was a very discouraging experience.

Another participant reflected on the struggle she had,

> I had never been abroad until I was 25, so I do not have a native accent. This is not a problem for me but I think Americans criticize it more than necessary. Some of my friends warned me about my '-r' sound articulation. To me, it is fine but I think this makes them uncomfortable. This is nonsense because I know they also have a funny accent when they speak Spanish or French. (Melis, 30, Ph.D., Political Science)

In conclusion, the interviewees differed in their views, experiences, and needs regarding the L2. As expected, I found that most language learners will develop more positive attitudes as they use the L2 for meaningful purposes in the target community, and as they see themselves improving. Also, as expected, interviewees reported that living in the target community and being exposed to English in a real setting led to an even more strong positive drive for learners who were intrinsically motivated to learn English. However, it was surprising to see how one of the participants was adamant in not learning English until college despite having future goals that required high English proficiency. As for the views on the proficiency and the areas to be improved, pronunciation and having a limited range

of vocabulary were reported by this target group, as these are common major obstacles for many language learners.

Hopes and Aspirations, Obligations, and Worries Related to English

Hopes and Aspirations Related to English

Participants were also asked to report the role of English in their future goals and how they imagined themselves using English in the future. The data showed that sounding like an American, or acquiring a non-distinct native-like accent, and expressing one's self effectively and accurately both in oral and written modes in academic and social settings were the two major L2 related hopes and aspirations.

> I would like to be like a native. Because all the resources on the topic I am studying are in English. I have never learned the terminology in Turkish. If they ever ask me to write a report in Turkish, I will not be able to write it. For this reason, my English needs to be perfect as much as possible. But I think, unfortunately, I cannot reach that perfect level in two years. (Ozlem, 26, MS, Engineering)

Melis, on the other hand, had a totally different projection of herself as an L2 user: "I am not worried about not sounding American. My major concern is to be able to express myself, to communicate effectively, to be able to read and understand content-related resources."

One prominent finding was that these participants had similar future academic goals. Most of them hoped to teach at a university, publish in international journals, and they imagined themselves collaborating with international scholars

and well-known researchers. For some of them, their future goals were partly determined by the scholarship they were granted, but they still imagined themselves becoming a knowledgeable researcher and a faculty member. As for Selim, Melis, and Helin, they were not funded by the government but they also had very clear view of themselves in the future. Selim wanted to work as a researcher in the U.S. or go back to Turkey to teach. Melis was willing to work in any country possible so long as she had a promising academic position. Similarly, despite being at the beginning of her academic career, Helin had very concrete ideas about what she wanted. After completion of her doctoral degree, she wanted to work as a professor and teach content classes. Simply, these individuals could see the connection between English and their future goals. They were aware of the fact that English was a bridge for them to achieve the future they had been imagining and constructing for themselves.

> I need to maintain this level of proficiency. It (having an advanced level of English) is important for positions both in Turkey or in any other country. In order to express myself accurately and to follow the recent development and research in my field, it is crucial for me to maintain this level. (Melis, 30, Ph.D., Political Science)
>
> In academia, you need to write a lot. Also, your findings are valuable and respected only if you can effectively describe them to your audience. You might have found an amazing thing, but if you cannot present it, it has no value. Therefore, I believe my English needs to be improved. (Selim, 30, Ph.D., Engineering)
>
> My major reason for coming to the States is to have access to resources related to my field. The resources in Turkey are very limited. In order to use the resources here, I need to know English. I think for academicians knowing English is very important. They will visit countries such as the U.S., and they will go to conferences. If they know the language, they can share more and

> learn more. I will be here for another 7 or 8 years. I came here believing that I will gain a lot. English is a must to achieve it. (Emir, 26, MA, Tourism)

In summary, the participants in this study had projected a future L2 self who is proficient enough to write academic publications, to teach at colleges, and to follow research in their respective fields. As mentioned in the previous section, despite being proficient in English even at the time of the interview, these individuals assessed their needs for achieving their future goals (i.e., acquiring larger vocabulary range), and hoped to improve their current proficiency level further.

Obligations that led to efforts to improve the L2

Participants were asked to report the reasons behind their motivation and efforts to learn/improve English. These adult learners mainly felt obliged to learn English and sought ways to improve their current proficiency level in order to meet the requirements of their future jobs and duties as professionals. All of them recognized the high value attached to English and respected the expectations that came from their future and prospective employers (i.e., the universities and departments in Turkey as well as in other countries):

> I have to know English for my job… in order to be successful at my job. Publications and resources are all in English. You need to have good command of English to use them. Knowing English is more important now. In the past, I was obliged to learn and use English (attended English medium university). In general, I like learning languages. But as I said before, for English I was obliged to learn. But now I really want to learn Spanish. My attitude toward English is very different from my attitude toward Spanish. I need to very proficient in English. (Ozlem, 26, MS, Engineer)

> I don't like English. I am here because of the obligations. If you want to catch up with recent developments/improvements in your academic area, you need to know English. Also, you need to have a voice at work…They will value who represent them. The only way to represent them (meaning the company) is to know English. Also, I have a competitive personality. I need to be always one step ahead of others. If I hadn't known English, I would always be one step behind the people at work, and thus, I needed English. Also, studies and resources are always in English. In anyways, I needed them; otherwise, I would be unsuccessful. (Meral, 25, MS, Engineer)

> English is the language of research and science so I need to know English. English is necessary because research resources in my field are almost always in English. Resources in Turkish are very limited. You need to read and use resources in English. (Seyda, 27, MA, Education)

To sum up, in addition to being aware of their weaknesses and dreaming of becoming more proficient L2 users, which would result in better success in their respective fields, these participants were mainly motivated to exert effort in learning English for external reasons, namely to have access to resources in English, to become indispensible employees, and to meet the expectations of prospective employers.

Worries associated with L2 and the effect of extensive exposure

The interview data showed that the participants held some concerns regarding the negative effect of extensive exposure to English on their mother tongue. They were asked to indicate whether they thought knowing English had any negative effects on their lives, whether they code-switched between English and Turkish, or they code-mixed their two languages (i.e., inserting English words when speaking Turkish), and how they felt when they did this.

First, the data showed that the most often recognized negative effect of English and being exposed to English in the target community was the substantial amount of increase in the frequency of code-switching and/or code-mixing. All participants reported that there was a noticeable change in the amount of code-mixing and code-switching they displayed after starting their degree programs in the U.S. They reported that they now code-switched or mixed more often when interacting with Turkish friends in the U.S. In addition, some of them pointed out that they sometimes code-mixed unintentionally when they were in Turkey interacting with individuals who did not know English. Except for one MA student, Helin, the rest of the participants mentioned they criticized themselves for code-mixing. Interestingly, some had been even more critical of individuals who code-mixed before they came to the States. They reported that coming to the States and observing themselves code-mixing made them less critical of those they had once criticized harshly.

> When I talk to people… friends or my family, words come out of my mouth half in English half in Turkish. Even now my Turkish is deteriorating. This is not a nice feeling. For instance, I would say, 'bu hafta bir tane deadline var' *(I have a deadline this week*). I used to criticize people who would code-mix but now I am like them. You look like a disabled person. In my first year in the U.S., I harshly criticized people who code-mixed, but now I understand them. I am not so critical about it anymore. (Meral, 25, MS, Engineering)

> We so internalized many of the political science terminology that when talking with Turkish friends, we would keep using this terminology; thus, the language we use is neither English nor Turkish. We cannot directly translate the terminology into Turkish. This is the reason why I often code-mix when interacting with friends from my department. This is why we degrade Turkish. (Melis, 30, Ph.D., Political Science)

Interestingly, another major worry that these individuals associated with code-mixing and extensive exposure to English was being seen as "arrogant," "wannabe," or "assimilated". It was not so much that they were worried about code-mixing as a sign of assimilation or a threat to their native languages, but, their worries were mainly related to how others would see them or perceive them rather than how they felt about it.

> When I talk to people in Turkey, I frequently use English words in my sentences. This often happens in the first few weeks upon my visit to Turkey. You know… just like when I am talking to you. Some people and friends find it very odd. They say "she has become Americanized. She has forgotten Turkish." They see it as "showing off." You know… like "wannabe." This is not the result of knowing English but rather not knowing the equivalent of these words in Turkish. …I have cousins. When I talk to them, sometimes my sisters make translations and tell them she means this or that. Those times I question myself. I am worried to be seen as arrogant. (Seyda, 27, MA, Education)

These individuals had also developed certain strategies in order to avoid being seen as assimilated or to overcome the possible negative prejudice their code-switching might cause them. Selim reported that his code-switching among his fellow friends and classmates was natural and acceptable. However, he paid a substantial attention not to code-switch when he was with individuals who were older than him. He thought his code-mixing might sound and seem very disrespectful in his community. Also, Melis stated that she spoke slower and gave herself a few seconds to find the right /accurate equivalent words in Turkish.

Another worry these individuals had was related to learning much content knowledge in English and getting accustomed to using this knowledge and vocabulary in English. Some believed that if they were ever asked to make presentations or write reports in Turkish, they would not be able to do so.

> I am really worried about it. Now I think how I am going to teach these ideas. We learned them in English. I do not have educational background on this terminology either. Now I ask myself how am I going to explain them in Turkish. Of course, I am worried about it. My students at some point might say, "this professor is Americanized, she had become an American." (Seyda, 27, MA, Education)

> I think I would struggle if I needed to write my reports in Turkish. Sometimes even when writing emails in Turkish, I need to double-check some of the spelling of the words. I think I will have no difficulty in expressing myself in Turkish orally but in academic Turkish, I think it will be hard for me. (Selim, 30, Ph.D., Engineering)

One prominent and interesting finding, although not directly related to L2 use, was how some of these individuals' future plans and hopes and aspirations were strongly influenced by their significant others. Due to the wishes of significant others and their attitudes toward the target community, and the worries of being seen as a *traitor* in his community, Selim, 30 year-old Ph.D. student, planned to return to Turkey upon completion of his degree.

> My relatives, not my mother or father, can be bothered. They might think "he went and got assimilated." Mainly I am concerned about it. There is a common belief in Turkey. Because I do Ph.D. here in U.S., they think I am working for the American government. In other words, we do research here and we serve here. On top of that, when you speak their language (meaning English), they say, "we lost him." They reproach me by saying, "you grew up here in these lands, but you are there in your most productive years serving them. Isn't it a betrayal?"

All in all, it had expected that Turkish learners would recognize some negative effects of English, of being exposed to English in daily life, and having limited access to Turkish speakers. As expected, the participants I interviewed recognized how the increased use of English affected their native language. Almost

all of them reported being aware of it, but only some of them viewed it as a threat and as a result became worried about its further effect. Also, one interesting finding was the worry related to being seen as arrogant or as a wannabe.

Attitudes toward L2 culture and L1 culture

One of the questions that this study sought to address was what challenges these students had in the target culture and whether these affected their sense of selves or influenced their views about the target culture or their own culture.

Attitudes toward L2 culture related to English

The interview data showed that some of the interviewees believed they had limited access to native speakers despite the fact they were living in the target community. One of the major reasons for these individuals, at least at the ESL level, for living in the States was to have opportunities to interact with individuals in the target community. However, some reported that they did not have many American friends due to several reasons, such as limited proficiency to interact with them, their hectic lifestyle, or the differences in understanding of what it means to be friends. Emir was one of the participants with the lowest proficiency in this group of interviewees, and despite his attempts to make American friends and his willingness to communicate with American people, his efforts had been in vain.

> I find it really difficult to establish friendship with Americans. After a few meetings, you can establish good friends with Turkish people, but for Americans it is different… at some point I think it is also related to not having things in common. Also, it is partly related to my proficiency level. I think they get bored of waiting for what I would say. (Emir, 26, MA, Tourism)

In summary, it was interesting to see that one of the main struggles for these Turkish students studying as international learners in the U.S. was having access to target community people and the target culture. Contrary to common beliefs about the benefits of study abroad in enabling individuals with unlimited access to target community and culture, the interviewees in this study reported having struggles getting access to target culture and people. This limited access was likely to have an effect on the attitudes of these international Turkish learners about American people and culture.

Developing positive attitudes toward American people

One of the most important benefits of studying in the U.S. was having the opportunity to recognize the cultural differences between their own and the host culture. First, they were amazed to find out how friendly most American were. Also, they were surprised to find out how principled/self-disciplined most Americans are (i.e., sticking to the rules). In addition, some reported Americans as being very patient, respectful of each other's rights, and cleaner than they had imagined.

> Most of the time when we get together with Turkish friends, the first thing we do is to compare American and Turkish culture. Honestly, I cannot say one is better than the other. They both have good and bad aspects. The first thing that comes to my mind is the neighbor relations. In Turkey, when you need something, you would go to your neighbor and ask to borrow it. Here you cannot do that. But, on the other hand, they are not as dirty as we think in Turkey. They use shoes at home but they are clean. We have somehow developed some misconceptions about them. (Selim, 30, Ph.D., Engineering)

> People here are very patient. For instance, you wait in line. I usually am a very impatient person but here I have become more patient. My professors here are like our friends. Last week, we went to a reception. The director of our research center was late, and all the seats were taken. The technician working in the research center and his family were also there. If this

> happened in Turkey, the technician and his family would stand up and give their seats to the director. But here it is different. People are professional. (Meral, 26, MS, Engineering)
>
> Their understanding and/or interpretation of work discipline is different from our understanding. They are more advanced than us. They are more disciplined. I accept it. Everything is done by the book. In Turkey, people are more lenient in bending the rules. (Seyda, 27, MA, Education).

One of the questions that I asked the participants was to indicate if they had any habits they had acquired in the U.S., or if there was any habit/value that they wished to acquire. Selim, a 30-year old male Ph.D. students, said,

> For instance, I have witnessed that my professors plan everything ahead. They follow the systems and procedures. Maybe this might be true for Turkey too but since I haven't done any academic graduate study in Turkey, I haven't seen it. Also, another difference is that you plan everything far in advance here. If you are going to meet someone, you will plan it at least a week before. If you say it one day before, it does not work. On the other hand, it is different in Turkey.

In summary, English is most commonly taught foreign language in Turkey, but English instruction is usually limited to written production, exclusively grammar and vocabulary teaching. Therefore, English learners in Turkey learn English usually independent of its culture, in which case it is unavoidable for learners to develop some misconceptions about American culture and people. Thus, coming to the U.S. and interacting with Americans and gaining first hand experiences in the U.S. culture enabled these individuals to have a better understanding of the target culture and community, which in the long run led them to develop more positive attitudes.

American people's characteristics that contradict Turkish values

As soon as individuals step into a new culture, they start comparing the values, beliefs, and characteristics of their own culture and community with the values of the new community. Some prefer to embrace these differences while others critically view, and then reject them. In comparison with the American culture, the participants in the qualitative part of this study reported becoming more aware of their strengths and weaknesses both as individuals, and as representatives of their own culture. For instance, one major difference was how differently the understanding of friendship/relationships were in both cultures. The participants claimed that they value friendships/relationships between people more than Americans.

> I think relationships here are temporary. I do not see this is real friendship. Today we are happy and we drink coffee. Tomorrow is not important. We only talk about everyday topics. I believe the understanding of friendship is different here. It is superficial. No one has time. They are individualistic and they normalize it. I hope some of the habits I acquired over these two years do not continue when I get back to Turkey. (Meral, 25, MS, Engineering)

> The relationships in graduate school were very disappointing for me. When I first came to the States as a student in an ESL program, I had friends. My professors were all Americans but all students were international. My professors were so accustomed to listen to different accents that I did not have any difficulty in expressing my ideas. I was shocked when I was taking courses with "real" Americans. In the MA program, the loneliness in the classroom destroyed me. They all had a cell phone in their hands, and they would just say "hi" and "bye." In addition, the courses were very difficult. We had no common activity. They did not share anything. They did not even offer food in the class when they were eating something. I still could not get used to it. Whenever I bring food to class, I would offer everyone. They looked at me, and I think they found it weird. Their being so self-centered made me feel so lonely here. It is like they build a wall between themselves and you. The friendship among them also startled me. Their understanding of friendship is going to a happy hour, and if you are a non-drinker, you cannot become part of their group either. (Seyda, 27, MA, Education)

> They are individualistic in terms of relationships. Compared to Turkish people, they are very self-disciplined. They wake up early and they work hard. Maybe the people around me are all Ph.D. students, and this might not reflect the whole community but my community in the U.S. is like this. (Melis, 30, Ph.D., Political Science)

Intentions and aspirations to internalize some American values

Most of the participants stated that they were positively influenced by certain characteristics of American people (i.e., being disciplined, patient, or being encouraging), and they wanted to internalize and appropriate these qualities. One prominent characteristic of the host people was being friendly, and smiling at each other on the street, saying hi even when you do not know the person.

> Of course, in our culture we have some flaws. For instance, greeting everyone on the street may be misinterpreted in Turkey. I can easily criticize this aspect of Turkish culture. For instance, you can say "hi" to everyone and greet them. It will be really nice if we can do it in Turkey. Maybe I can realize it when I go back to Turkey. (Selim, 30, Ph.D., Engineering)

In addition to being able to compare American people and their life styles with Turkish people, studying in the U.S. and living in the target community also enabled these individuals to compare their own academic setting and learning environment with the U.S. setting and universities. They recognized several differences, most of which they found positive and more motivating.

> Also, they are very encouraging. Even if you do a terrible presentation, they will say "good job." You feel better, and you do better next time. In Turkey, they always find something to criticize you, and criticism is usually not constructive. (Meral, 26, MS, Engineering)

> Frankly, when I first came, it was very scary to think that my friends woke up that early to study. I thought I had to adjust to their life style. I understood that I had to study harder to be part of it. If I had stayed in Turkey, I would not have acquired this habit. (Melis, 30, Ph.D., Political Science)

> Here, students are more independent. They have more freedom. They can choose their departments or the occupation they want to pursue in their 3rd or 4th years. In Turkey, you know, you choose your department before you go into the program. Even in many cases, you choose a department based on the score you get from OSS [a high-stake university entrance exam. Only 3% of the test takers can go to colleges]. Also, most of the students do not choose an occupation. They choose a university. In the U.S., this is different. Another difference is the assignment system. Here, professors have TAs. When they give assignments, TAs can grade them. In Turkey, professors need to grade the papers; therefore, they did not give a lot of assignments. (Selim, 30, Ph.D., Engineering)

> Communication with people is very different here. Everyone is relaxed and easy-going here. Due to the project my professor is running, I have met several people, most of whom are way older and more experienced than I am. They treat you like a friend. It is a little bit different in Turkey. People in Turkey are very strict. My professor is 67 years old, and I call him by his first name. At first I was calling him with his last name but he told me it was strange for him. Therefore, I communicate with these people better. (Ozlem, 26, MS., Engineering)

To summarize, as mentioned before, living in the U.S. and having access to American culture and people enabled these learners to compare and contrast their values with the values of target community people. It was expected of them to recognize some differences, and accept or reject values of people in the target community. As in the example of building friendship, these learners rejected the new form of friendship which was highly valued and preferred by the target community people with whom they had interaction.

Increased intercultural understanding and gaining an insider perspective

One of the benefits of doing graduate study in the U.S. for these participants was to gain increased cross-cultural understanding as well as being able to see events from multiple perspectives. Seyda, who was funded by the Turkish

government and would be appointed to a faculty position upon completion of her degree, stated that living in the States enabled her to see one of the major political and identity problems in Turkey, namely the Kurdish problem, from a different perspective. Through interaction with target community and experiences in the U.S., she had developed an insider perspective and could now view the Kurdish problem as an issue of identity, rather than a threat or terrorism.

> In fact, I have never thought that I become Americanized but I must admit I have learned a lot from people who were from different cultures. For instance, I think I become more tolerant and more open-minded. Sometimes I criticize some Turkish people. Now I am more concerned and more respectful about value judgments of people. Even sometimes I think about the Kurdish problems in Turkey. Their native language is not Turkish and they have every right to ask for an education in their own language. Now when people ask me, I can say they have their own culture and language. (Seyda, 27, MA, Education)

Overall, the findings revealed that participants recognized the positive and appealing aspects of American culture, admired and appreciated these characteristics, and for some, they full-heartedly embraced them. Some, on the other hand, felt they had become more attached to their own values and culture. As I had expected, living in the target community enabled these individuals to clear misconceptions about American people and culture and helped them to gain an insider perspective via their experiences.

The stages of transforming from a nationalist view of sense of self to becoming a more oriented-and-adjusted self

One of the answers this study looked for was how living in the target community and studying in the U.S. had impacted these individuals' sense of self and

what kinds of changes they had experienced. Interestingly and surprisingly, the individuals I interviewed had all varying degrees of identification with the target community as well as with their own home community. Regardless of the duration of their stay in the U.S., I saw five major trends in their identification levels.

Deep-rooted national identity

One type of identity that was projected by one of the participants was her connectedness to her national identity. Several times in the interview, she expressed her worries about the changes she was undergoing that made her feel she was losing who she really was. She felt a constant struggle between her deeply-nationally rooted beliefs and the requirements of the target environment in which she was living. As a result of living in the target community, she felt contradiction with her own beliefs, and still identified herself mainly with Turkish individuals and Turkish values.

> If I stay here in the U.S., I think it will definitely affect who I am and what I believed in. Two years ago, no one could make me sit at the Starbucks in Turkey, or eat in a restaurant that sells alcoholic drinks. I was more principled then…When I first came here, I was feeling pity for homosexuals. I was thinking they were sick, and it was a disease. Now when I see a kissing homosexual couple on the street, I do not find it odd. Or, in my first semester, we went on a field trip. In a large room, girls and boys slept together. That night I asked myself, "what am I doing here?." In these two years, I have changed, and if I stay here longer, I do not think I can protect my cultural values. (Meral, 26, MS. Engineering).

Inter-national competing (dual) identity

Despite accepting having become a world citizen, and holding an international identity in this respect, and appreciating the new "self" they had created in the target community, some interviewees asserted a belief in the

superiority of their national identity. In this stage of adaptation and/or identification, these individuals recognized and appreciated the changes in their sense of selves that were the result of living in the States. However, they still rigorously identified themselves with their own culture and viewed their values as better than the values of any other culture**.** In this sense, the two identities of being "international" and "national" seemed to be competing in these individuals.

> When you do not go abroad, you have a tendency to believe that the world is rotating around you. But this is not true. Living in the States was like a test in a lab for me. Therefore, I am not the same person. I have changed. I have become more tolerant and more understanding, in particular of different ethnic groups. For instance, to Armenians. In Turkey, I could not imagine myself sitting with an Armenian and sharing. My radicalism has been more alleviated. But in general, we are better than any other culture. (Meral, 26, MS, Engineering)

> I feel I am more a world citizen because I have learned about different characteristics of different cultures. You know how to treat Indians versus Mexicans… I like being like this. But still, I would not like to lose my original identity. For instance, if something happened like this, if they asked me to return my Turkish identification card and would give me an international identification card, I would not prefer it. (Selim, 30, Ph.D., Engineering)

Transformed identities

One of the participants projected an identity that seemed to have undergone a rigorous transformation. At this stage, the participant embraced the changes he had gone through, he highly appreciated American values and ways of thinking and acting, and identified himself with those who behaved like an American. In short, he wanted to become an American, and he wanted to be seen as an American.

> Like all animals, human beings also modify themselves. They go through changes. Since our arrival to the U.S., I think we have changed a lot. Because once you enter into a community, you start thinking like them, or understand like them. A few years later, I think I might change. For instance, I might also

> study my articles, become less social, and my life style might be more like the lifestyle of people in here. I might try more to accommodate with the lifestyle here. I have a friend who lie on the ground like Americans, take off his shirt and says " I will sunbathe." He always uses English words in his speech. I like it. I want to be like an American citizen. … For sure, we will change. We might be assimilated. (Emir, 26, MS., Tourism)
>
> I sometimes feel distant from my own culture. I used to listen to Turkish music and watch Turkish series or films. When I came here, I decided not to listen to Turkish music or watch Turkish movies. Now I don't enjoy any of them. My taste in music and movies has changed. Most of the time when I watch a Turkish movie, I find it nonsense. I think these changes will affect my relations with people and friends. I do not think we will have a lot common when I return to Turkey. (Emir, 26, MS., Tourism)

Fully-transformed identity

One of the participants, in contrast to the other participants, had projected herself as fully committed to being American, and fully associated with life in the U.S. She not only avoided having contact with Turkish individuals during her stay in the U.S., but also did not worry about being seen as arrogant by those of the Turkish community. Also, the self she had created in the U.S. seemed more prominent and more desirable to her, and she held more concerns and worries regarding losing this new self she had created in the U.S.

> Starting from my first year here, I wanted to hang out with people other than Turkish friends. It was primarily for improving my English but also I enjoyed the company of Americans and internationals more. My roommate, who was a Turkish student, told me that other Turks were criticizing me that I was arrogant and would not hang out with Turkish people. They are free to think whatever they think. (Ozlem, 26, MS., Engineering)
>
> Last year when I went to Turkey, the moment I set foot at the airport, I suddenly became worried about if I would be able to come back to Austin. I do not know if I would feel this way if I stayed in another city…I have always lived with my parents, but here I am living on my own. The house here and the life here belong to me, only to me. (Ozlem, 26, MS., Engineering)

Neutral identity

Finally, Melis, a 30-year-old Ph.D. student presented a different identity that was more balanced compared to the rest. She did not identify herself with Americans but she recognized and appreciated the differences. Also, she did not identify herself as a Turkish person. Instead she identified herself as an individual coming from Turkey.

> Living in another culture and interacting with people from different cultures broadens one's horizons. I also felt the same way when I first went to Paris. I witnessed people had different tastes and they have different life styles. If you can recognize them, then you are lucky. Now I regret that I haven't been abroad before. This experience, however, does not disable me from understanding my friends and does not make me feel distant from Turkish culture. (Melis, 30, Ph.D., Political Science)

> I am not a nationalist person. I don't define myself with races. I see myself as an individual from Turkey, not Turkish. Living here does not make me less of who I am (someone from Turkey). I follow news about Turkey. I am interested in events and changes in my country. (Melis, 30, Ph.D., Political Science)

L2 Identity

One prominent and interesting finding was to see how some of the participants presented their L2 identities. Meral, who presented a more nationalist identity in general, argued that the gestures, her tone, and the way she spoke (the way she presented herself) changed when she spoke English.

> If you cannot speak English, you do not exist. I usually am a very forward person. When I enter into new communities, I usually show myself, and like to lead. But this does not happen in English-speaking communities. I mean when I speak English. This Meral in Turkish is not the same Meral who speaks English! English-speaking Meral is another Meral. (Meral, 26, Engineering)

The changes in Meral's behaviors, ways of speech and intonation could also be seen in her interactions with other English-speaking Turkish friends.

> …My gestures, tone, and my reactions are totally different when I speak English. For instance, once my father said, "when you speak with friends from METU or Bosphorus (universities 100% in English- English medium universities), your tone of voice and way of speech changes, but when you are talking to us, you are normal. Does English change you that much?" I have never wanted people around me to think like that. (Meral, 26, MS., Engineering)

In conclusion, the learners who participated in the interview projected various identities. Some were more inclined to identify themselves as Turkish whereas some preferred to call themselves as not Turkish but as an individual from Turkey. The construct of identity is very complex as it relates to individuals' emotions and feelings regarding their identification with a particular community, and this identification can be influenced by various factors, such as having (no) access to the various communities, individuals' experiences within these communities, their past experiences, as well as their beliefs, hopes, and goals. Therefore, as seen in the findings of this study, every individual seem to experience and display their own combination of characteristics and their uniqueness as reflected in how they projected themselves.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of the present research was to investigate how projections of Turkish adult college level learners' selves, namely their ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and feared L2 self, and how their future time orientations, namely the extent to which they are connected to the future and how much they value their goals, influence their motivated learning behavior and their perceptions of identification with the target culture and community as well as their own culture and community. In other words, my overarching goal was to investigate the associations among variables in attempting to understand second language learning (L2) motivation and possibly to create a holistic picture of motivation for second/foreign language learning, connecting two theories of the future: possible selves and future time perspective. The data were collected from Turkish adult learners of English who were studying to earn their graduate degrees in U.S. universities. In this chapter, I first summarize and discuss my findings within the framework of the previous literature. Next, I address the pedagogical implications that follow from my results. Third, I discuss the limitations of the study. I end the chapter by presenting some potential research directions that could be pursued based on the findings of this study.

Research question 1. (a). *What is the role of future time perspectives and L2 motivational self system, instrumental motivation, and attitudes toward the L2 community for Turkish graduate students in learning and/or improving their English?*

My major goal in this study was to identify whether two future oriented theories, future time perspective and possible selves related to learning a second language (L2), are useful in explaining Turkish college level learners' motivation to learn English, and whether either of these theories can predict the learners' changing sense of selves as L2 users as well as their identification with the target community and their own community. As for the theory of future time perspective, the existing literature has concluded that learners who perceive high utility value for present tasks or who perceive present tasks as having high instrumental value do better than learners who have low instrumental value (Lens et al., 2004; Simons et al., 2004). Along these lines, Simons (2001) in his study of 11th and 12th grade students found that students who perceived high utility value of the current tasks for their future goals exhibited more adaptive motivational behavior. Based on the existing research, I also hypothesized that Turkish college level learners' future time orientations would be related to their motivated learning behavior, namely their intention to improve their current English proficiency level. My findings did not support this hypothesis in that, the variance explained by the future time perspective constructs (both value and connectedness) was not significant, indicating that these two constructs could not significantly contribute to explaining L2 motivated learning behavior. However, it is important to note that the path model tested in the present study was quite complex, and due to the nature of path analysis as a statistical method, it is possible that the effect of future time perspective constructs might have remained latent.

I had also hypothesized that learners' perceived instrumentality and their attitudes toward the L2 culture would be positively related to their motivated learning behavior. Contrary to the hypotheses, instrumental motivation did not significantly predict the motivated learning behavior. This finding was also surprising for two reasons. First, considering the nature of English language instruction and the role of English in Turkey, I would expect some of participants in this present study to be instrumentally motivated. English is the most common foreign language offered in Turkish schools, and learning English is usually a gate-keeper for many colleges. Thus, many college level learners are obliged to take English courses and get a passing grade on a proficiency test in their freshmen year to be able to continue education in their respective domains. Also, knowing English is a very important, if not the most important, requirement for a college graduate in order to get a well-paying job. Therefore, it was surprising not to see this expected pattern in the analysis. As for attitudes toward the target community, the finding was quite unexpected in that the association was statistically significantly negative. Getting a negative association was most likely due to suppression effect due to the complexity of the model tested.

As mentioned in the previous chapters, Dornyei's L2 motivational self system model had three components: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the L2 experience. Taguchi et al. (2009) studied three contexts, namely Japanese learners, Iranian learners, and Chinese learners, and found that all three components from the L2 motivational self system were statistically significantly related to motivated learning behavior. Also, Papi (2010) found that for Iranian learners, the ideal L2

self, the ought-to L2 self, and the L2 experience were all useful in predicting learners' intended effort. In these studies, the strongest predictor was L2 experience. Similar to the existing literature, the paths in my result from the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the L2 experience to motivated learning behavior were statistically significant for these Turkish learners, and thus supported the conclusion that the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the L2 experience are useful constructs that contribute to explaining the motivated learning behavior of Turkish college level learners. However, it is important to note that the previous studies had studied contexts where English was taught as a foreign language. The target group in this study, in one way, differed from them as my participants learned English as a foreign language in Turkey but they were studying in America at the time of the study, which could have caused some differences. Despite living in the target community, adult Turkish learners showed a pattern similar to that of Iranian, Japanese, or Chinese EFL learners (Papi, 2010; Taguchi et al., 2009). That is, learners' ideal L2 selves, ought-to L2 selves, and their L2 learning experiences were critical.

Research question 1. (b) *What is the role of future time perspectives and L2 motivational self system, instrumental motivation, and attitudes toward the L2 community in predicting Turkish graduate students' national and oriented identities?*

One of the hypotheses I had proposed was that instrumental motivation and learners' attitudes toward the target community would be positively and significantly related to their representation of national and oriented identities. I had

predicted that learners who were mainly instrumentally motivated would be more likely to identify with their national identity and learners who had positive attitudes toward the target community would be more likely to present an oriented identity because learners with instrumental reasons would be wiling to improve their English for tangible reasons (e.g, getting a well paying job, getting a promotion) rather than identifying themselves with. the target community people. Therefore, I had expected that individuals learning English for instrumental reasons would be more likely to hold on their ethnic/national identities. On the other hand, I had expected that learners who had developed positive attitudes towards American people would be more willing to be identified with American people and their life style. The existing research has mainly used qualitative approaches to explore learners' identities. Kim (2003) investigated learners of English in a multiethnic and multicultural nation, Malaysia, and reported that participants frequently represented different identities depending on the group with which they were interacting. Similarly, Gao (2011) studied how Chinese learners in a study abroad context in Britain depicted their national versus international identities depending on the context and with whom they were interacting. Roger (2010) also interviewed seven Korean learners and investigated whether they identified themselves as global citizens or rejected such a label. Overall, findings depicted that through interaction and struggles, learners' identities shifted and varied. Based on this finding, I also wanted to explore if learners' instrumental motivation to learn English and if their attitudes toward the target community would be associated with the identities they endorsed.

Before going deep into a discussion of my findings, I believe it is important to explain the common attitudes of Turkish people toward English and American people. As mentioned before, English as a school subject has been widespread in Turkey, and many educational institutions recognize that English is an international lingua franca in education as well as in many domains. As for attitudes, unfortunately English courses in Turkey are usually limited to grammar and vocabulary teaching without any integration of culture. Therefore, many learners of English develop preconceptions and biases against English-speaking cultures including American people, based on their access to media, TV shows, and movies. Thus, it was expected that some of these participants would have negative attitudes toward American people and their life style. Thus, my findings for national identity indicated that neither instrumental motivation nor attitudes toward the target community played a significant role in explaining the variance (.05 and -.08). However, for oriented identity, the path between attitude toward the L2 community and oriented identity was statistically significant, and attitude toward the target community explained almost 18 % of the variance in oriented identity. This finding was also anticipated as when learners develop positive attitudes towards American people and culture, they would be more willing to be associated and related to them. When I undertook hierarchical regression analyses, I also found that neither instrumental motivation nor attitudes toward the target community significantly contributed to the explanation of national identity. One interesting difference between path analysis and hierarchical regression analysis was the effect of instrumental motivation on oriented identity. According to the regression analysis,

instrumental motivation was statistically significantly useful in predicting the oriented identity scores. The difference between path analysis and hierarchical regression might be the complex nature of path analysis. In path analysis, the paths are simultaneously tested, but in multiple regression, associations between variables are tested while holding everything else constant. Therefore, the findings of path analysis showed that Turkish learners' attitudes toward the target community impacted their perceptions of identification with the target community. In other words, when learners had more positive attitudes toward the target community, the American culture and community for this study, they were more likely to identify themselves with the target community compared to learners who had less positive attitudes toward the target community.

Research Question 2 (a). *Which of the aforementioned constructs (FTP and L2 motivational self system) are better predictors of Turkish graduate level learners' motivation to learn English?*

As mentioned above, in contrast to what I had hypothesized, results did not indicate a significant association between future time orientation and motivated learning behaviors for these Turkish college level learners. The findings of this study did not resonate with the findings of Simons (2004), Lens et al. (2006), and Shell and Husman (2001). In these previous studies, the findings showed that learners' future time perspectives were significantly related to their achievement and studying. Also Phalet et al. (2004) found that those who could see the connection between the instrumental value of the present task and their future tasks were more

motivated for school tasks, used more effective learning strategies, and worked harder and performed better. However, in this study neither path analysis findings nor hierarchical regression analysis suggested that Turkish learners' connectedness to the future and the values they attached to their future goals were important predictors as they had been shown in other studies. The lack of association between the aforementioned variables might be due to the nature of learning a language. Learning English is different from other school subject as it requires more time commitment and constant effort; thus, learners' connectedness to the future and/or how much they value their future goals might have played a less important role. Also, the relationships between future connectedness and the value component of future time perspective and motivated learning behavior might be more complicated than I had initially hypothesized. The unexplained variance indicated that there might be other variables that further research should incorporate into the model. Therefore, the findings of this study should be considered as exploratory, rather than conclusive on this matter.

By comparison, the L2 motivational self system significantly predicted motivated learning behavior as hypothesized. According to path analysis findings, all three components of the L2 motivational self-system, namely the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the L2 experience, had positive and significant associations with motivated learning behavior. Thus, my findings supported the results of previous studies (Cziser & Kormos, 2009; Papi, 2010; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009) that students' attitudes toward learning English (the L2 experience), is an important driving force in learning English, and also seems to contribute to learners' future

images of themselves as successful language learners. In a nutshell, it is important to understand that learners' future projections of themselves as successful language users and the selves that they created, and their language learning experiences may have been related to facilitating or undermining their motivation to exert more effort or to make personal investments in learning English.

Research Question 2 (b). *Which of the aforementioned constructs (FTP and L2 motivational self system) are better predictors of Turkish graduate level learners' identification with the target community or with their own community?*

As mentioned before studies that have looked at individuals' identification with certain cultures and communities have used a qualitative approach. By contrast, in the present study, I investigated whether learners' perceptions of their belongingness to their own culture versus their orientation and adaptation to the L2 culture could be related to their future time orientation and the L2 motivational self-system quantitatively. Both the path analysis and the hierarchical regression results revealed that individuals' national identity could only be predicted by the feared L2 self construct, a finding to which I will return in the next section. As expected, the worries that are associated with learning English are negatively related to individuals' perceptions of their belongingness to their own nationality. The major worry expressed was that learners were afraid of losing their L1 and of being seen as someone who had assimilated into another culture. Similar to the Chinese participants in Gao's (2011) study, some of the participants' national identity shifted

from a passive identity to a very active identity, and living in the States and encounter with the target community made them identify themselves with Turkish people and culture more than before.

On the other hand, for the oriented identity, which was operationalized as learners' adaptation to the new culture and acceptance of hybrid identities/global identities, path analysis findings depicted that learners' attitudes toward the target culture, their language learning experiences, and their L2 ideal selves significantly predicted their oriented identities. Hierarchical linear regression findings also supported the path analysis results in the present study. Similarly, Roger (2010) found that the desire to become a global citizen/having hybrid identity was not a universal aspiration. That is, some participants viewed themselves as more global citizens who could imagine themselves adapting to various cultural settings, and living in any country and culture easily whereas others viewed themselves simply as Korean citizens who could speak and use English if needed. Therefore, it can actually be claimed that when learners have positive attitudes toward to the target culture, when their language learning experiences are positive, and when they have positive ideal L2 selves, they are more likely to embrace the idea of having hybrid identity and/or feeling more like globalized individuals who have more adaptive behaviors/beliefs in the target community. Interestingly and surprisingly, learners' attitudes toward the culture had also an indirect effect on oriented identity, which was mediated by the ideal L2 self. Thus, it is important to note that learners' attitudes toward the target community may not be significantly related to their motivation to learn English but it is directly and indirectly playing a role in their

perceptions of their identification with the target culture, which in turn may lead to increase in their motivation.

Research Question 3. *Does adding a measure of feared L2 possible self add significantly to the prediction of motivation over and beyond the ideal-self and ought-to self constructs?*

One of the initial goals of this study was to explore if the feared self construct would be useful in explaining language learning motivation in English. The associations between feared L2 self and motivated learning behavior was found not to be significant. However, it is important to note that the feared self and how it is related to language learning, whether it facilitates or debilitates language learning, is still a puzzle needing more attention. In this respect, this study should be considered exploratory, and the findings of this study do not provide evidence sufficient to conclude that the feared L2 self and motivated learning behavior were not associated. Yowell (2002) found that learners create significantly fewer feared selves. That is, individuals have a tendency to have more positive goals and aspirations, and they mainly focus on positive aspects of the future rather than negative. The learners' focusing more on positive selves rather than negative selves may have contributed to this finding. Mainwaring and Hallam (2011) found that individuals who had had negative experiences in their lives were more inclined to have fragile possible selves, and they had more negative perceptions of their future prospects. It is possible that the participants in this study may have had fewer

negative experiences related to L2 or life in the U.S. due to the duration of their stay in the U.S., and therefore, this may have played a role in not finding significant associations between these variables.

One interesting and surprising finding was that in the present study, some participants scored high on both ideal L2 self and feared L2 self scales. Oyserman and Markus (1990a) suggested that possible selves could have "maximal motivational effectiveness" if the negative selves in the same domain are counter-balanced. Nonetheless, in the present study, the data indicated that these two constructs may not have had an additive effect but rather they may have had competing effects on the construct being investigated. In this study, although in some cases learners had created ideal L2 selves that significantly contributed to their motivated learning behavior, they seemed to have worries regarding having exposure to English and suffering from its potential negative effects. This constant struggle between reaching the ideal L2 self but also avoiding the feared L2 self could have a facilitating or a debilitating effect on the motivated learning behavior as well as on the perceptions of their identification.

As for adding the measure of feared L2 self in predicting national versus oriented identity, the findings of the present study showed that the feared L2 self significantly predicted national identity. Actually, the feared L2 self was the only significant predictor of national identity. Any increase in the feared L2 self led to a .36 standard deviation decrease in the national identity. That is, it can be speculated that feared self could be an outcome of the national identity rather than vice versa.

Research Question *4.* (a) *How do Turkish college learners' projections of themselves as future English users contribute to their present motivation to learn English or improve their current English proficiency level?* **(b)** *How does living in the target community affect Turkish college learners' sense of selves? What identities do they enact or adopt?*

In the qualitative part of the study, I interviewed 10 participants. The broader themes that emerged were associated with (a) learners' English learning experiences, (b) their hopes, aspirations, obligations and worries related to English, (c) their attitudes towards the L2 and L1 culture, and (d) their sense of self with respect to national identity versus oriented-and-adjusted identity.

Norton (1997) postulated that the relationship between language and identity is complex, contradictory, multi-faceted, and dynamic across time and space. Similarly, Lam (2004) showed that when individuals migrate from one geographical or sociocultural context to another, their sense of who they are is transferred or recreated. In such situations, issues about race, ethnicity, gender, and social class become interrelated. Block (2007) proposed that when individuals move across geographical and psychological borders, immersing themselves in new socio-cultural environments, they find that their sense of identity is destabilized, and they enter a period of struggle to reach a balance. Based on previous theories and research, I had also expected that the participants would reflect on the changes they were going through, and how being in the U.S. and living in the target community, being exposed to different views and cultures, would make them critically evaluate

their own beliefs and values, enable them to create "new" selves, or modify their sense of belongingness.

The first theme that emerged was related to learners' L2 learning experiences. They reflected on their changing attitudes towards English. Except for one interviewee, these interviewees stated that their attitudes had changed. Although some had "always" been intrinsically motivated to learn English, others reported that they had developed more positive attitudes only upon their arrival in the U.S. and upon interacting with the individuals in the target community. One surprising finding was that despite being proficient enough to be admitted to a graduate programs, these participants were mainly concerned about their weaknesses as an L2 user (i.e., not having a large range of vocabulary, or having a distinct non-native accent), and most of them sounded determined and dedicated to overcome these weakness in their English. Most importantly, almost all of them increased their awareness of the importance of knowing English and of becoming proficient in English in order to reach their future goals and realize their hopes and aspirations during their study abroad in the U.S. This change might actually lead some of these learners to exert more effort and show persistence in improving their current proficiency level.

Second, one of the major purposes of this study was to explore the role of English in learners' future hopes and aspirations, and any obligations or worries that were associated with English, or any worries that they related to English. Roger (2010) interviewed Korean learners and found that their ideal L2 self was not a strong motivator for them. However, some of the Korean learners imagined

themselves as being successful in their careers and imagined themselves writing high quality text. Similar to the Korean learners in Roger's study, the participants in this study also had intentions and hopes to become professional L2 users who could read and write academic papers, sound more native in English, and who could publish in international journals and collaborate with international scholars. The hopes and aspirations related to English could be defined as "ideal L2 self" in Dornyei's interpretation. Although I do not claim to have established a direct connection between the ideal L2 self and motivation to learn English, I believe that having a strong ideal L2 self (e.g., desiring to sound more native, or being able to write academic texts/manuscripts) creates a goal for the individual and motivates the individual to decrease the discrepancy between the ideal L2 self and the present self. This hypothesis was supported by the quantitative part of the present study where I found that learners' ideal L2 self was positively and significantly correlated with their motivated learning behavior. As well, the findings resonated with existing studies in the literature (Csizer & Kormos, 2009; Taguichi, Magid, & Papi, 2009; Papi, 2010).

One other interesting finding was how these individuals felt obliged to improve their current proficiency in English in order to meet others' expectations or so as not to disappoint them, which can be labeled as the ought-to L2 self. It is also important to mention the role of others in the Turkish society. Turkish society should be viewed as a collectivist culture. In the family structure, significant others (e.g., father, mother, grandfather/mother, elder siblings, close relatives) usually play an important role in decision making processes . That is, it is quite important for

individuals to please the significant others and/or not to disappoint them. Due to the firmly-rooted collectivist nature of Turkish society, it was anticipated that some of these individuals would be motivated to exert effort and invest in learning English not to let down their significant others. In the present study, the obligations that these individuals mostly reported were related to their occupational and academic domains. That is, they reported they needed to improve their English proficiency to meet the expectations that came from their employers, and/or because their academic posts required them to be able to read and write in English, and publish in journals. These findings were expected for two reasons. First, as mentioned before, the interviewees were an elite group of students earning graduate degrees in the U.S., many of whom were top students in their respective home universities. Therefore, it is easy to categorize goal-oriented and motivated learners. It was expected that these individuals would be highly focused on acquiring a professional identity in their jobs, and thus, view learning English as a way of achieving their long-term goals related to obtaining a good occupation. Second, English, as a lingua franca, brings certain advantages to its users, such as better employment opportunities. Therefore, these individuals reported having the need to meet the expectations that were part of their future jobs.

As for worries associated with learning or knowing English, there were two main subthemes: the negative effect of L2 on their L1 and being seen as an "assimilated" individual, or being viewed as someone who shows off. These worries related to L2 seemed to instantiate a feared L2 self, that is, the L2 self that the individual does not want to become. The findings of this study were aligned with the

findings in the literature. Kim (2003) studied learners in Malaysia and found that participants' use of English or their choice of L2 or L1 depended on the context. One of the factors that determined their choice of L1 over L2 was being afraid of being seen as an "assimilated individual" or being seen as someone "showing off." Also, speaking English was associated with being non-Muslim; therefore, they on purpose rejected using English in particular contexts. Although there is scarcity of research on the feared L2 self, I believe my data support a cautious conclusion that some of the emotions or perceptions among ESL/EFL learners can be universal, such as the worry about being seen as an assimilated individual. On the other hand, despite the heavy emphasis on offering English classes and recognition the significant role of English in education and in the world, there might be a common tendency among Turkish people to think code-switching is a sign of assimilation or as a sign of disrespect to Turkish people and Turkish language. Therefore, from this perspective, it is also possible that some of these worries related to knowing/using English might be culture-specific.

Another emerging theme was the changing attitudes of learners toward their home as well as the host culture. According to Agar (1994), it is not possible to abstract language away from culture. That is, cultural practices are seen to be deeply embedded, conveyed, embodied, and negotiated within the use of language. Thus, living in the target community and interacting with people in the target community caused some of these individuals to go thorough a transformation regarding their attitudes towards the target culture as well as their own culture. As mentioned in the previous section, in Turkey there is usually very limited focus on culture and

target community values and customs in the English language classrooms. Therefore, learners learning English in Turkey usually build attitudes towards target community people based on media, TV shows, and movies that do not always reflect the true nature of values and characteristics of a population. This study abroad experience enabled them to compare the culture they were born into with the U.S. culture in which they now found themselves. Similar to participants in Kim (2003), Atay and Ece (2009), and Gao's (2011) studies, these learners seemed to compare both cultures frequently, and they appropriated and embraced some American values while rejecting some others. Sara, one student from Kim's study, stated that having a command of English gave her a form of "double vision" with which she could slip in and out of her own culture and gave her a self-reflective awareness of her own culture. Some students in Atay and Ece's (2009) study reported that the acquisition of English helped them gain an awareness concerning the differences between cultures and helped them change some personal traits, for example, being a more flexible and tolerant person. The appreciation and appropriating, or critical evaluation and refusing of some values, beliefs, and characteristics of target community individuals helped my participants to gain an intercultural understanding and awareness.

Finally, this research was also aimed at exploring participants' views about their identification with the target community, the extent to which they felt related to their own community, and the role of English and living in the target community in their perceptions regarding their sense of affiliation. Block (2007) asserted that study abroad experiences influence learners' sense of self. According to Lantolf and

Pavlenko (2001), newcomers in the target communities are received in various ways. They may be welcomed or assisted in developing proficiency they need, or they may find their participation limited and feel not welcomed or embraced as they had imagined. As Lantolf and Pavlenko (2001) stated, learners actively and consciously contribute to shaping their own learning experiences in which they may accept, accommodate, resist, or reject the communities and practices they encounter. In this sense, language learning involves more than the accumulation of competence in some sense owned by individuals but is one aspect of the larger process of becoming a person in society (Ochs, 2002). As the participants in this study had crossed physical as well as social and psychological borders of the target community, and because they were living in the target community, they were expected to depict varying degrees of affiliation with the people of the United States, which enabled them to enact different identities, including an L2 identity.

One prominent identity that was embodied was national identity. Davies and Harre (1990) stated that when students go abroad, they may find that their national identity influences the way in which they are "located in conversation" (p. 20), and they may position themselves as representatives of their home countries. Similar to participants in Gao's (2011) study, one of the participants in this study had also become more aware of the peculiarities of Turkish culture, and living in and interacting with the target community reinforced her national identity. This finding is supported by Kinginger (2009) who reported that American students became more patriotic (ethnocentric) during their study abroad in France. Kinginger (2009) provided a reason for enhanced national identity during study

abroad: when study abroad students view their target community as temporary, they may prefer to close down the process of language socialization in favor of renewed affiliation with their home societies. Additionally, they may justify this choice through judgmental criticism of the host country's practices. This might be one of the reasons for Meral to be very defensive of Turkish culture and values.

Another reason for Meral's strong ties to her national identity could be explained by her negative attitudes towards learning English from an early age. She explicitly stated that she did not like English, and yet she needed to learn English to become a respected and knowledgeable engineer in the eyes of employers. Thus, combining her negative attitudes towards English and her extremely high instrumental motivation for learning English, it was not unexpected for her to be strongly affiliated with the Turkish community and culture as she did not see English as being a part of who she was. In conclusion, for Block (2007a), living in the target community and being exposed to the target culture "might lead, not to greater intercultural awareness, but to an enhanced sense of national identity" (p. 171), just as seemed to have happened to Meral.

The second emergent identity presented was a competing dual identities, that is, presenting both national and international identities. Learners in this category viewed themselves as both global citizens and nationalists in different contexts. These learners had undergone a struggle to create global identities and viewed English as part of their identities, and/or reformed their views of their national identity. Living in the U.S. and interacting with individuals in the target community provided them with opportunities to reflect on their awareness of the

values and ways of life in Turkey. They acquired a critical view of both sets of values and ways of thinking after they integrated a new set of values into their own thinking. However, nevertheless, their affiliation with the target community and culture was not as strong as their ties and their perceptions of belonging to their own culture and community. This finding resonated with the findings from Kim's study (2003) in which Korean learners also stated appreciating the values, different ways of thinking, and becoming more culturally literate, but still they avoided categorizing themselves as global individuals, and they rejected the global identity that was ascribed to them by others.

The other two trends in identity presented by the learners were more oriented and adjusted towards the target community. That is, some of these learners were more eager to adopt western ways of thinking and lifestyle. Ryan (2006) proposed that globalization does not present individuals with either-or choices, but allows them to construct "contextually dependent hybrids of global and local values" (p. 33). Arnett (2002) also defended hybrid identities as being more usual, common, or preferable in particular contexts. Similar to participants in Atay and Ece's (2009) study, some participants in the present study did not regard having a global or international identity as a threat to their existing identities. However, the participants in Atay and Ece's study were not asked to adopt a Western identity to pursue their studies or to have a particular status in society as they were learning English in the foreign language context of Turkey. In this group, on the other hand, participants needed to survive in the target community. In addition to the obligations and demands of the target community, the concept of "world citizen" or "

global citizen" did have some resonance with them. For instance, Emir was so motivated to be seen as an American or sound like a native speaker that he embraced the "new" self he had created for himself, with tastes in music and film and behaviors that had changed as a result of living in the target community. Similarly, Ozlem refused to be affiliated with individuals from Turkey, but rather she preferred to be associated with international students or American people. She was glad to have the opportunity to live in the U.S., she full-heartedly welcomed her "American" self, and she regarded her "American" identity as primary compared to her national identity. Ozlem spoke English well, and she was able to immerse herself completely when interacting with a group of English speakers. This ability would potentially enable her to live and work long-term outside Turkey. It is important to note that both Emir and Ozlem were some of the participants who had been motivated to learn English only instrumentally until their study abroad experience. Their attitudes towards learning English had changed after coming to the U.S. and interacting with individuals in the United States, both American and others from different cultures they met. Thus, learners' orienting themselves in the target community and culture, and embracing and adopting values and American ways of thinking and living might be related to their attitudes towards English as well as getting to know American individual better.

Finally, learners interpreted their experiences through the lens of history, local, and contextual settings in which they found themselves. One interesting representation was having a balanced view of both national and international identity. Melis, in particular, stated that she viewed herself as neither having a

Turkish nationalist identity nor holding an international or global identity. She not only appreciated but also critically evaluated the values and beliefs in both cultures. This helped her to acquire a more neutral stance and thus enabled her to be equally close and/or distant to each culture and to the people in these cultures. Although the previous research showed that learners either enhance their national identities or view themselves as more global/international individuals, it is important to notice that identity as a construct, as Norton (2000) underlined, is very complex, and more research is needed to explore the experiences, feelings, and perceptions of L2 learners on their sense of self, as in the case of Melis.

Pedagogical implications

Educational practitioners, researchers, and policy makers are aware of the fact that language learning means more than simply focusing on the linguistic factors of a language in formal settings. Learners' attitudes toward the target language community, affective factors, their cultural values and beliefs, the interactions they have, and the identities that they create for themselves or the ones that have been created for them include some of the issues that might affect second/foreign language learning. The findings of this study suggest several pedagogical implications regarding learners' future orientations, their acquisition of the second language, their future L2 selves, and their motivations to learn the L2 as well as the L2 identities they adopt.

First and most importantly, practitioners, policy makers, and school directors should have an awareness of socio-psychological factors and of the psycho-dynamic

nature of motivation that might have an impact on L2 acquisition. It is indispensible to recognize the importance of differences in learner profiles, attitudes, identities, and motivations in the language classrooms. Therefore, instructional practices and activities in the language classroom should be designed in such ways that enhance students' ideal L2 selves, and decrease their feared L2 selves, thereby enabling in the long run the creation of more positive self-concepts. Also, another suggestion includes raising awareness of learner identities, their future orientations, and their attitudes towards the target community as well as their future possible selves in the second/foreign language acquisition contexts and enabling them to create positive and varied L2 identities. Such awareness may attenuate the social and psychological distance between the learners, language tasks, and the target community.

As for learners, knowing the target language community and interacting with its members in the target language setting can influence their attitudes, beliefs, misconceptions, and the nature of relationships with target community members, and this can act as a motivating source. The qualitative data I reported showed that some participants' attitudes and beliefs about the target community had changed as a result of their interactions in the target community, and this had led them to develop more positive attitudes, and thus they became more willing to communicate and exert more effort to learn English. In a nutshell, learners of English, or any other language, should be given opportunities to engage in study abroad experiences and to interact with the target community in the L2 setting.

Regarding the future time perspective, teachers should actively and in innovative ways support the development of future goal setting in culturally diverse

classrooms, highlighting future goals, or by articulating positive connections between learning language and achieving personally valuable goals in the near and far future. Moreover, previous research provided evidence that perceptions of instrumentality or seeing the connection between the present tasks and future goals cannot be easily influenced by a direct explanation of the particular learning activity (Husman, 1998; Peetsma & van der Veen, 2011). Perceptions of instrumentality, thus, have been identified as an important motivational source. Hence, practitioners and language instructors should design tasks that could help learners see the instrumental value of the learning tasks for their future goals.

As for in-class practices, the study findings also suggest several implications. Most importantly, teachers and language practitioners should design activities and tasks that will help learners create ideal L2 self models. As Yowell (2002) reported, learners who had more vivid and clearer images of their ideal selves were more strategic and had more motivationally adaptive behaviors. Similarly, Dornyei (2009) has also postulated the importance of facilitating vivid and clear images of ideal L2 selves in the classroom to motivate language learners. Also, as Markus and Nurius (1986) highlighted, the construct of possible selves is a bridge between cognition and motivation, and it is related to individuals' self-concept. Therefore, language instructors and practitioners should provide opportunities and learning environments that enhance and facilitate positive self-concept.

One other interesting finding was how the participants in the study had developed feared L2 selves. The worries they developed regarding the loss of or deterioration of their mother tongue and of being seen as an "assimilated" or

"showing off individual" should be understood and appreciated by language practitioners. These individuals should be trained about how language learning is a process and in the process many learners go through similar experiences. In addition, language practitioners should be aware of the struggles the learners are going through in a study abroad context, and they should show their appreciation to learners for the struggles they go through, and provide necessary psychological and social support when needed.

Limitations

As with any research, this study had several limitations that constrain interpretation and generalizability. First, the findings should be approached and interpreted with caution due to the nature and quality of data collection and analysis methods as well as socio-psychological issues related to the backgrounds of the participants, a background I shared as the researcher. Some of the findings were from correlational data, obviating any causal claims. Even though the hypothesis and path models were constructed based on the previous research and there were theoretical justifications for each of them, the data came from self-reported answers to a survey. That is, some relevant aspects of variables may not have been fully captured by such measures.

Second, with respect to the survey, another limitation could be that the survey was translated into Turkish (and checked with back translation into English). Despite the fact that the individuals who translated the survey were highly proficient and advanced L2 users, and they were earning their living via translating,

there may well have been some meaning lost in the translation process. This may have led some participants to interpret the questions differently from other participants, which may have affected the findings, therefore, the interpretations.

Third, the characteristics of the participants in this study can also be considered as one of the limitations. The participants were mainly graduate students who could by virtue of current situation be defined as goal-directed individuals. Individuals who are in industry or who do not aim to undertake any graduate study might have different idealization of themselves as L2 users, or they may have different feared L2 selves. Thus, when interpreting the results, it is important to remember that these findings cannot be applied to all language learners.

Also, the findings can only be interpreted from a Turkish culture perspective. Cultural differences may have impacted the findings, and thus interpretations. Different cultures may have different interpretations or views of English, and they may attach different values to it. So findings might have been different if gathered with members of another culture. More importantly, the variables that were investigated in this study (i.e., motivation, identity, future possible selves) were all variables that cannot be directly observed, and this may have caused certain limitations. Finally, the qualitative data were based on only 10 participants and interviewing more learners could have depicted a better and more holistic view of L2 motivation.

Future research directions

The study provided a better understanding of the relations between Turkish college level learners' future orientations, their future projections of themselves as L2 users, and their motivation to learn English as well as their perceptions of and their identification with the target culture and their own culture. In previous studies, research had suggested that helping learners to set goals, create ideal future selves, and create a learning environment that facilitates a positive self-concept would support learners' motivation (Husman & Shell, 2008; Lens et al., 2006; Yowell, 2000). However, there were no studies of these variables conducted in the language classrooms. This study brings more attention to language classrooms, not only learners' language learning background but also to their integration and adaptation in the target community. In order to obtain a more holistic approach to learners' future selves, their future orientations and the degree to which they feel control over these different selves should be studied.

First, theoretically the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the feared L2 self are abstract variables, and future research should look into possible alternative ways to measure them. Dornyei (2005) has proposed that the L2 motivational self system could bring a new perspective to explaining L2 motivation, and he has asserted that there are three components to the L2 motivational self system. Motivation is a very complex phenomenon, and it is highly likely that learners' ideal L2 self can be composed of several components, such as a confident L2 user, a less anxious L2 user, or an academically proficient L2 writer, among others. Likewise, the learners' feared L2 self might be composed of an assimilated self, an

unsuccessful L2 user, a funny-sounding L2 user, etc. Future research is needed that can explore the potential components of the aforementioned L2 selves.

Another theoretical suggestion for future research is to investigate the relationship between emotions and the future L2 selves. In this study, I found that participants were motivated to learn English or improve their current language proficiency by realizing their ideal L2 selves or meeting the expectations of worthy others, that is, realizing their ought-to L2 selves. Some of the participants expressed worries about the negative effects of English on their lives, in particular on their L1/Turkish. Due to the exploratory nature of this study, future research should be conducted that involves a comparative analysis with a larger sample size. Moreover, future research may want to examine the cultural, contextual, and historical factors that might play a role in constructing varying ideal and feared L2 selves.

Furthermore, this study should be replicated in different settings with different language learners, such as learners learning less commonly used languages or bilingual learners developing both languages to explore whether the language of interest or integration into another culture affect the construction of L2 identity, and whether the findings can be generalized to various learner settings. In addition, previous research on future orientation and future time perspective has studied different learner groups. However, future time extension, whether an extended or short-term future perspective, had more impact on L2 motivation could not be explored in this study. Researchers could look at how learners' extension into the future may play a role in their motivation as well as in their identity construction.

Another interesting venue to be explored is how these learners of English differ from the learners of English learning English in Turkey. By utilizing a comparison/contrast method, future research could explore how learning English in the target setting and in an EFL context differs with respect to the possible L2 selves learners create, L2 identities they enact, and the future orientations they adopt.

Finally and most importantly, learners learning different languages in bilingual and multi-lingual settings, and /or in foreign and second language settings should be interviewed in order to attain a more rich depiction of the negative factors that they might associate with learning a second/foreign language. In this study, the two main feared L2 self reasons were the fear of losing the L1, and of being seen as an assimilated or a traitor in the eyes of individuals from their own culture. Thus, future research might shed light on the generalizability of the findings of this study.

APPENDIX A: Questions for generating feared L2 self

Please write down your responses to the questions. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers to the questions so respond honestly and to the best of your ability.

PART A: Biographical information

Major: _____

Year at the school: _____

Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

Age: _____

How long (in years) have you studied English both at school and after school? _____

What are the things that you are good at doing in English?

_____
_____
_____
_____

- What are some of the things you hope to achieve as a learner of English?

_____
_____
_____
_____

- What are some of the things you expect to achieve as an English language learner?

_____
_____
_____
_____

- What are some of your fears as a learner of English?

_____
_____
_____
_____

- What statements or words best describe you as a language learner?

_____
_____
_____
_____

- Do you ever worry about negative consequences of being good at English?

_____
_____
_____
_____

- What words or phrases best describe you as a person?

_____
_____
_____
_____

- What are some of the things you hope to achieve as a person?

_____
_____
_____
_____

- What are some of the things you expect to achieve as a person?

_____
_____
_____
_____

- What are some of your fears as a person?

_____
_____
_____
_____

APPENDIX B: List of questions for the feared L2 self

1. I am afraid of losing my own native language due to my overuse of English during my stay in the United States.
2. I am afraid of creating a negative image of myself among my native people when I speak English.
3. The more I know English, the more I am afraid of not using my native language accurately before my native friends and family.
4. I have to improve my English because I do not want to be criticized by others (students, colleagues, bosses, friends) about my English proficiency.
5. Studying/improving English is important to me because I do not like to be considered a poorly educated person.
6. I worry that when I speak English fluently people might think I am showing off.
7. People might perceive speaking English fluently as sign of assimilation. This worries me.
8. The more I stay in the United States and the more I use English, the more I feel distant from my people and friends.
9. I worry that my native language is deteriorating as I am exposed to English most of the time in my life here.
10. I worry that when I return to my country, people will criticize my native language use.
11. I worry that people might perceive me as arrogant when I do not remember particular words in my native language.
12. I am worried that I might not be able to write reports, do presentations, or write official letters in my native language because I learned to do them in English.
13. I will feel ashamed if people correct my pronunciation in my native language when I go back to my country.
14. I am worried that if I do not use English effectively and express my ideas accurately, I will misrepresent my country and my people.

Appendix C

Part A: Motivated Learning Behavior Questions

1. If an English course is offered at my university in the future, I would like to take it if at all possible.
2. If an English course is offered elsewhere (in the community), I would take it.
3. I am trying to improve my English skills (e.g. speaking, listening, writing, reading, pronunciation, and vocabulary) anytime I have a chance.
4. I am prepared to exert more effort to improve my current English proficiency level.
5. I use every opportunity to improve my English proficiency level, such as reading the paper, practicing with native speakers, or watching TV series in English.
6. When I have access to English-speaking TV stations/ radio stations or online websites, I try to use them whenever possible.
7. I enjoy studying English, and would not mind studying it even if it was not required.
8. I would like to spend lots of time studying English.
9. I would like to concentrate on studying English more than any other topic.
10. If my teacher would give the class an optional assignment, I would certainly volunteer to do it.
11. I feel tense when someone speaks to me in English.
12. Speaking with a native speaker makes me feel uneasy.
13. I get nervous and confused when I speak in English.
14. I am afraid of sounding stupid in English because of mistakes I make.
15. I am afraid that other students will laugh when I speak English.

Appendix C

Part B: Possible selves questions

15. I can imagine myself speaking English well.
16. I can imagine myself communicating in English in social contexts.
17. I can imagine myself communicating in English in academic contexts.
18. I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends and colleagues.
19. I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.
20. Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English effectively.
21. The things I want to do in the future require me to use English.
22. I can imagine myself writing English emails/letters fluently.
23. Learning English is important because people surrounding me expect me to do so.
24. People around me think that I must improve my English to become a better educated person
25. I consider learning English important because people I respect think so.
26. I consider learning English important because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of English.
27. Not using English effectively can have a negative impact on my social life.
28. Not using English effectively can have a negative impact on my academic life.
29. Not using English effectively can have a negative impact on my future career plans.
30. I try to improve my English because I do not want to be embarrassed by errors of misuse or mispronunciation of English in the classroom/in social contexts.
31. Studying English is important to me in order to gain approval of my peers/teachers/family/boss.
32. I am afraid of losing my own native language due to my overuse of English during my stay in the United States.
33. I am afraid of creating a negative image of myself among my native people when I speak English.
34. The more I know English, the more I am afraid of not using my native language accurately before my native friends and family.
35. I have to improve my English because I do not want to be criticized by others (students, colleagues, bosses, friends) about my English proficiency.
36. Studying/improving English is important to me because I do not like to be considered a poorly educated person.???
37. I worry that when I speak English fluently people might think I am showing off.
38. People might perceive speaking English fluently as sign of assimilation. This worries me.

39. The more I stay in the United States and the more I use English, the more I feel distant from my people and friends.
40. I worry that my native language is deteriorating as I am exposed to English most of the time in my life here.
41. I worry that when I return to my country, people will criticize my native language use.
42. I worry that people might perceive me as arrogant when I do not remember particular words in my native language.
43. I am worried that I might not be able to write reports, do presentations, or write official letters in my native language because I learned to do them in English.
44. I will feel ashamed if people correct my pronunciation in my native language when I go back to my country.
45. I am worried that if I do not use English effectively and express my ideas accurately, I will misrepresent my country and my people.

Appendix C

Part C: Attitudes toward L2 community, L2 experience and instrumental motivation questions

46. Studying English is important to me because with a high level of English proficiency, I can get a better job than with less proficiency.
47. I study English because it will some day be useful in getting a good job.
48. Studying English is important to me because I can earn more money with a high level of English proficiency.
49. English proficiency is necessary for promotion in the future; therefore, studying English is important to me.
50. Studying English is important for me because I need it to live abroad or in foreign countries, to work globally.
51. Studying English is important to me because my future academic plans require it.
52. Studying English is important to me in order to attain a higher social status.
53. I have to improve my English because I do not want to be the kind of person who has only limited job opportunities.
54. I like the people of the United States.
55. I think English-speaking countries (besides the United States) have an important role in the world.
56. I think English-speaking countries (besides the United States) are advanced and developed countries.
57. I think the United States has an important role in the world.
58. I like the people who live in English-speaking countries (besides the United States).
59. I like meeting with people from all English speaking-countries.
60. I would like to be similar to the people of English-speaking countries.
61. I like English.
62. Learning English is really great.
63. I really enjoy learning English.
64. I am always looking forward to opportunities to use my English.
65. I find learning English really interesting.
66. I have always looked forward to the English lessons at school.

Appendix C

Part D: Future time perspective questions

67. Given the choice, it is better to get something you want in the future than something you want today.
68. It is better to be considered a success at the end of one's life than to be considered a success today.
69. The most important thing in life is how one feels in the long run.
70. Goals in the far future are more important than goals in the closer future.
71. It is more important to save for the future than to buy what one wants today.
72. What happens in the long run is more important than how one feels right now.
73. I don't think much about the future.
74. It is really no use worrying about the future.
75. What one does today will have little impact on what happens ten years from now.
76. What will happen in the future is an important consideration in deciding what action to take now.
77. I don't like to plan for the future.
78. It is not really important to have future goals for where one wants to be in five or ten years.
79. One shouldn't think too much about the future.
80. Planning for the future is a waste of time.
81. What might happen in the long run should not be a big consideration in making decisions now.

Appendix C

Part E: L2 identity questions

82. Learning English has changed me. I feel I am not only a citizen of my country but also a more global person.
83. Learning English/knowing English is a threat to my national identity.
84. Learning English/speaking English is a danger to how I feel about my country and my people. It made me feel less of who I was.
85. Learning English has made me more westernized.
86. After coming to the United States, I am no longer only a citizen of my country. I am a different person now.
87. After learning English, I feel I have a hybrid identity (combination of both national and international identities).
88. Being proficient in English distances me from my own culture and people.
89. As I have learned English, I have become more aware of similarities and differences between western cultures and my culture of origin.
90. I think learning English has broadened my worldview.
91. I worry that my friends and colleagues will think I am less a good representative of my country if I switch between my native language and English in the same utterance or conversation.
92. I feel less belongingness to my country and people if I speak English fluently.
93. I am a different person when interacting with my friends/colleagues from my own country and with my native English speaking friends/colleagues.
94. Having access to cultures of English speaking countries via knowing English has made me a different person than I was before.
95. Learning English has not changed me at all.
96. If I speak English like a native speaker, people might criticize me in my native community.
97. Knowing English empowers me.
98. I believe shifting between my native language and English in my own community is a disgrace to my own culture and people.
99. I worry that if I speak English like a native speaker, I might lose a part of my national identity.

Appendix C

Part F: Background information

1. How old are you? (Please circle the box that is appropriate)

younger than 20	between 21 to 25 ages	between 26 to 30 ages	between 31 to 35 ages	between 36 to 40 ages	between 41 to 45 ages	over 45

2. Sex (Please put a tick to the box that is most appropriate)

Male ☐ Female ☐

3. Marital Status (Please put a tick to the box that is most appropriate)

Single ☐ Engaged ☐ Living with a partner ☐ Married ☐ Divorced ☐

Please answer the questions # 3a, #3b, #3c, #3d if you are married or living with a partner.

3a. If married/living with a partner, the nationality of the spouse/partner: _____

3b. If married/living with a partner, the native language of the spouse/partner: _____

3c. If married/living with a partner, the language(s) spoken at home: _____

3d. If applicable, number of children: _____

4. How long (in years) have you studied English both at school and in private studies or self-study ? _____

5. Are you currently enrolled in a formal program other than ESL?

Yes ☐ No ☐

5a. If yes, please answer the following questions:

Major: _____

Degree being sought: _____

Year at school/ University:_____

6. Current proficiency degree/latest TOEFL/ IATEFL score (as best you remember it):

_____

7. Years of formal English instruction (in years) prior to current experience:

_____

8. The amount of interaction (in hours) with native speakers on a daily basis:

_____

9. After you finish your current program, if you have the chance, would you want to stay in the U.S. or any other English speaking country:

Yes ☐ No ☐ Maybe ☐

10. After you finish your current program, do you intend to seek further academic training:

Yes ☐ No ☐ Maybe ☐

Appendix D: Survey Questions in Turkish

Güdülenmiş öğrenme davranışı

1. Eğer ilerde üniversitemde İngilizce kursu açılırsa, mümkünse bu kursa kaydolurum.
2. Eğer yaşadığım yerde herhangi bir kurumda ingilizce kursu açılırsa, bu kursa kayıt olurum.
3. İgilizce konuşma,dinleme,yazma,okuma becerilerimi sesletim ve kelime bilgisiyle birlikte geliştirmek yönünde her fırsatı değerlendirmeye çalışıyorum.
4. Mevcut İngilizce yeterlik seviyemi geliştirmek için daha fazla gayret etmeye hazırım.
5. İngilizce yeterlik seviyemi geliştirmek için her fırsatı değerlendiriyorum. Örneğin, gazete okuyor, anadili İngilizce olan kişilerle konuşuyor veya İngilizce tv dizileri izliyorum.
6. İngilizce yayın yapan tv kanalları ya da radio kanallarına veya internet sitelerine erişim sağladığımda, bu kaynaklardan mümkün olduğunca faydalanmaya çalışıyorum.
7. İngilizce öğrenmekten keyif alıyorum.Öyle ki, ingilizce gerekli olmasaydı da seve seve bu dili öğrenmeye çalışırdım.
8. İngilizce öğrenmek için çok fazla zaman ayırmak isterim.
9. Sadece İngilizce öğrenmeye odaklanmayı başka herhangi bir konudan çok daha fazla istiyorum.
10. Eğer öğretmenim sınıfa isteğe bağlı bir ödev verirse, bunu kesinlikle yapmaya can atarım.
11. Birisi benimle ingilizce konuştuğunda kendimi gergin hissederim.
12. Anadili İngilizce olan biriyle konuşmak beni huzursuz eder.
13. İngilizce konuştuğumda gerginleşir, allak bullak olurum.
14. İngilizce konuşurken yaptığım hatalardan dolayı aptal konumuna düşmekten endişe duyarım.
15. İngilizce konuşuğumda diğer öğrencilerin bana gülmesinden endişe duyarım.

Olası Benlikler

16. Kendimi çok iyi İngilizce konuşurken hayal edebiliyorum.
17. Kendimi sosyal ortamlarda İngilizce iletişim kurarken hayal edebiliyorum.
18. Kendimi akademik ortamlarda İngilizce iletişime geçerken hayal edebiliyorum.
19. Kendimi diğer ülkelerdeki kişilerle ve meslektaşlarımla İngilizce konuşurken hayal edebiliyorum.
20. Kendimi İngilizceyi ana dilimmiş gibi iyi konuşurken hayal edebiliyorum.
21. Ne zaman gelecekteki kariyerimi düşünsem, kendimi İngilizceyi etkili bir şekilde kullanır vaziyette hayal edebiliyorum.
22. Gelecekte yapmak istediğim şeyler İngilizceyi etkili bir şekilde kullanmamı gerektiriyor.
23. Kendimi İngilizce elektronik iletileri ya da mektupları akıcı bir şekilde yazarken hayal edebiliyorum..
24. İngilizce öğrenmem gerekli çünkü çevremdeki insanlar benden ingilizce öğrenmemi bekliyorlar.

25. Çevremdeki insanlar daha iyi eğitimli bir birey olmam için İngilizcemi ilerletmem gerektiğini düşünüyorlar.
26. İngilizce öğrenmenin gerekli olduğunu düşünüyorum çünkü saygı duyduğum insanlar da aynı görüşü savunuyorlar.
27. İngilizce öğrenmenin gerekli olduğunu düşünüyorum çünkü böylelikle diğer insanlar bana daha çok saygı duyacaklar.
28. İngilizceyi etkili bir şekilde kullanamamak sosyal hayatımı olumsuz yönde etkileyebilir.
29. İngilizceyi etkili bir şekilde kullanamamak akademik hayatımı olumsuz yönde etkileyebilir.
30. İngilizceyi etkili bir şekilde kullanamamak geleceğe dair kariyer planlarımı olumsuz yönde etkileyebilir.
31. İngilizcemi ilerletmeye çabalıyorum çünkü sınıfta ve/veya diğer sosyal ortamlarda sesletimde ya da dil kullanımında hata yaparak komik duruma düşmek istemiyorum.
32. Yaşıtlarımın/öğretmenlerimin/ailemin/patronumun onayını almak için İngilizce öğrenmem önemli.
33. Amerika'da bulunduğum sürede çok fazla ingilizce kullanmamın ana dilimi geriletmesinden/unutturmasından kaygı duyuyorum.
34. İngilizce konuştuğumda, kendi ülkemdeki insanlar üzerinde olumsuz bir etki bırakmaktan kaygı duyuyorum.
35. İngilizcem ilerledikçe, kendi ülkemdeki insanların ya da ailemin önünde ana dilimi etkili ve doğru şekilde kullanamamaktan kaygı duyuyorum.
36. İngilizcemi ilerletmek zorundayım çünkü İngilizce yeterlik seviyem yüzünden diğerleri(öğrenciler,meslektaşlar,patronlar,arkadaşlar) tarafından eleştirilmek istemiyorum.
37. İngilizce öğrenmek benim için önemli çünkü eğitim düzeyi düşük biri gibi algılanmak istemiyorum.
38. İngilizceyi akıcı bir şekilde konuştuğum zaman, diğer insanların gösteriş yaptığımı düşünmesinden endişe ediyorum.
39. İnsanlar İngilizceyi akıcı konuşmayı asimilasyon göstergesi olarak algılayabilir. Bu da beni endişelendiriyor.
40. Amerika'da kaldıkça ve İngilizce konuşmaya devam ettikçe, kendimi ülkemdeki insanlardan ve arkadaşlarımdan daha bir uzaklaşmış hissediyorum.
41. Buradaki yaşantımda çoğu zaman İngilizceye maruz kaldığımdan, ana dilimin gerilemesinden endişeleniyorum.
42. Ülkeme döndüğümde insanların ana dildeki kullanımımı eleştirmelerinden endişeleniyorum.
43. İnsanların ana dilimi konuşurken bellli başlı kelimeleri hatırlayamadığımda beni ukala olarak algılamalarından endişeleniyorum.
44. Ana dilimde rapor yazamamaktan, sunu yapamamaktan ya da resmi yazışmalar yapamamaktan endişe duyuyorum çünkü bütün bunları İngilizce olarak yapmayı öğrendim.
45. Ülkeme döndüğümde eğer insanlar benim telafuzumu düzeltirlerse bundan utanç duyarım.

46. İngilizceyi etkili bir şekilde kullanamadığım ve fikirlerimi doğru şekilde ifade edemediğim takdirde ülkemi ve ülkemdeki insanları yanlış tanıtmaktan endişe duyuyorum.

Tutumlar

47. İngilizce öğreniyorum çünkü günün birinde ingilizce iyi bir işe girmemde etkili olacak.
48. İngilizce öğrenmek benim için önemli çünkü çok iyi derecede İngilizce bilmek bana daha düşük seviyedeki İngilizce ile sahip olabileceğimden çok daha iyi bir iş imkanı sağlar.
49. İngilizce öğrenmek benim için önemli çünkü çok iyi derecede ingilizce yeterlilik seviyesiyle daha fazla para kazanabilirim.
50. İngilizcede yeterlilik gelecekte terfi etmede gerekli. Bu nedenle ingilizce öğrenmek benim için önemli.
51. İngilizce öğrenmek benim için önemli çünkü yurtdışında ya da yabancı ülkelerde yaşamak ve buralarda çalışmak zorundayım.
52. İngilizce öğrenmek benim için önemli çünkü akademik kariyer planlarım bunu gerektiriyor.
53. İngilizce öğrenmek daha iyi bir sosyal statü edinmek için gereklidir.
54. İngilizcemi ilerletmek zorundayım çünkü sınırlı iş imkanlarıyla yetinen bir insan olmak istemiyorum.
55. Amerikan halkını seviyorum.
56. Amerikanın yanı sıra diğer İngilizce konuşulan ülkelerin de dünyada önemli bir role sahip olduğunu düşünüyorum.
57. Amerikanın yanı sıra diğer İngilizce konuşulan ülkelerin de ileri ve gelişmiş olduğunu düşünüyorum.
58. Amerika'nın dünyada önemli bir role sahip olduğunu düşünüyorum.
59- Amerikalıların yanı sıra diğer İngilizce konuşulan ülkelerdeki insanları da seviyorum.
60. İngilizce konuşulan ülkelerden insanlarla tanışmayı seviyorum.
61. İngilizce konuşulan ülkelerdeki insanlar gibi olmak istiyorum
62. İngilizceyi seviyorum.
63. İngilizce öğrenmek gerçekten harika.
64. İngilizce öğrenmekten gerçekten keyif alıyorum.
65. İngilizcemi kullanabileceğim fırsatları dört gözle bekliyorum.
66. İngilizce öğrenmeyi son derece ilginç buluyorum.
67. Okuldayken ingilizce derslerini hep iple çekmişimdir.

Geleceğe Bakış

68. Seçenek sunulduğunda, bugün istediğin birşeye sahip olmaktansa gelecekte hedeflediğin şeye sahip olmak daha iyidir.
69. Bugünde başarı ile özdeşleşmektense ömrünün sonunda başarıyla anılmak daha iyidir.
71. Uzak geleceğe dair planlar yakın gelecektekilere oranla daha önemlidir.
72. Dilediğini bugün satın almaktansa, geleceğe yatırım yapmak daha önemlidir.
73. Uzun vadede olacaklar şu anda hissedilenlerden daha önemlidir.

74. Geleceği pek düşünmem.
75. Gelecekle ilgili kaygılanmanın hiç bir yararı yoktur.
76. Bugün yapılanlar bundan on yıl sonraki olacaklar üzerinde çok az bir etkiye sahiptir.
77. Gelecekte olacaklar şu anki eylemi belirlemede önemli bir husustur.
78. Geleceğe dair plan yapmayı sevmem.
79. Bundan beş ya da on yıl sonra varılmak istenen yere dair hedefler koymak hiçte önemli değildir.
80. İnsan çok fazla geleceği düşünmemelidir.
81. Geleceğe dair plan yapmak zaman kaybıdır.
82. Uzun vadede gerçekleşebilecek şeyler bugün alacağımız kararları etkileyici bir husus olmamalıdır.

İkinci Dilde Kimlik

83. İngilizce öğrenmek beni değiştirdi.Kendimi sadece ülkemin bir vatandaşı değil, aynı zamanda evrensel biri olarak hissediyorum.English has changed me.
84. İngilizce öğrenmek/bilmek ulusal kimliğime yönelik bir tehdittir.
85. İngilizce öğrenmek/konuşmak ülkeme ve ülkemdeki insanlara olan hislerime yönelik bir tehlikedir. Beni olduğumdan başka biri haline dönüştürmüştür.
86. İngilizce öğrenmek beni daha çok Batılılaştırmıştır.
87. Amerikaya geldikten sonra, artık sadece kendi ülkemin vatandaşı olmakla kalmayıp, bambaşka biri oldum.
88. İngilizce öğrendikten sonra, karma bir kimliğe sahip olduğumu hissediyorum. (ulusal ve uluslarası kimliklerin birleşimi).
89. İngilizcede yeterli olmak beni kültürümden ve insanımdan uzaklaştırır.
90. İngilizceyi öğrendikçe, batılı kültürlerle kendha bir ayırımına vardım.
91. İngilizce öğrenmenin dünya görüşümü genişlettiğini düşünüyorum.
92. Aynı ifade ya da konuşma sırasında ana dilimden ingilizceye geçiş yaparak arkadaşlarımın ve meslektaşlarımın ülkemi hiçte iyi temsil etmediğimi düşünmelerine yol açmaktan endişe duyuyorum.
93. İngilizceyi akıcı şekilde konuştuğum takdirde, ülkeme ve insanıma karşı daha az aidiyet duygusu taşıyorum.
94. Kendi ülkemden insanlarla (arkadaş/meslektaş vs.) iletişim kurarken başka biri, ana dili İngilizce olan kişilerle (arkadaş/meslektaş vs.) iletişim kurarken başka biri oluyorum.
95. İngilizce konuşulan ülkelerin kültürüne ingilizce bilgim sayesinde erişmek beni daha önce olduğumdan başka biri haline getirdi.
96. İngilizce öğrenmek beni hiç değiştirmedi.
97. İngilizceyi ana dilimmiş gibi konuşursam, çevremdeki yurttaşlar beni eleştirebilir.
98. İngilizce bilmek bana güç katar.
99. Çevremdeki diğer yurttaşlarımla konuşurken ana dilimden ingilizceye geçiş yapmamın kendi kültürüme ve insanıma karşı utanç verici bir durum olduğunu düşünüyorum.
100. İngilizceyi ana dilimmiş gibi iyi konuşursam, ulusal kimliğimin bir kısmını kaybetmekten endişe ediyorum.

Appendix E: Interview Questions

1. What is the role of English in your future career?
2. How do you see yourself as a user of English? Are you satisfied with your current level? Why/why not?
3. Do you imagine yourself as a successful English speaker? How?
4. How does knowing English affect your relations with friends from different nationalities/colleagues, friends from your own country, etc.
5. Do you think knowing English might have any negative impact on you and your relations with people from your country in any way? How? Does this affect your attitude/behavior toward learning English?
6. Has your attitude about learning English changed since coming to the U.S.?
7. How does learning English impact your national identity? (Do you think learning English has made you more westernized? How? When did you begin to feel more westernized? Do you call yourself a more Turkish person, or more western person, or an individual who has a more hybrid identity?)
8. Does your Turkish identity ever clash with your westernized identity?
9. Do you think there are similarities and differences between your native culture and the cultures of English speaking countries, namely the U.S.? How did you become aware of these similarities and differences? What was the role of learning English in this? Do you think you become more culturally literate as a result of knowing English?
10. Do you think people who know/can speak English are different from people who do not know/cannot speak the language? How?
11. Do you think having access to English speaking cultures and people via knowing English has made you a different person than you were before?
12. Do you feel less Turk/Kurd if you learn English very well/speak English fluently?
13. Do you still remain the same person as you were before you began to learn English?
14. How has knowing English impacted your status in society in your home country?
15. Do you think not knowing English is a sign of low status?
16. Do you think learning English distances you from your own culture and people? How?
17. Do you think knowing English/learning English is a threat to your national identity?
18. Do you worry that if you speak English like a native speaker, you might lose a part of your Turkish (national) identity?
19. When you are interacting with friends/colleagues from your country, do you worry about switching between Turkish and English? Do you pay particular attention not to switch to English when interacting with your friends/colleagues? If yes, why? Do you worry that they will think less of you if you do so?
20. Do you think people will criticize you when you speak like an American in your native community? Does this affect your intention to improve your current level of English?

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VITA

Duygu Uslu Ok attended Erdogan Akdag Anatolian High School, Yozgat, Turkey. From 1996 to 2000, she studied at the Middle East Technical University (METU), Turkey, and received a Bachelor of Arts degree in Foreign Language Education. In 2003, she received her Master's of Arts degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language from Bilkent University in Ankara, Turkey. From 2000 to 2009, she worked as a lecturer at Anadolu University, Eskisehir, Turkey. In 2009, she joined the Foreign Language Education Program at the University of Texas at Austin.

Permanent address: duslu2006@gmail.com
dusluok@utexas.edu

This dissertation was typed by the author.